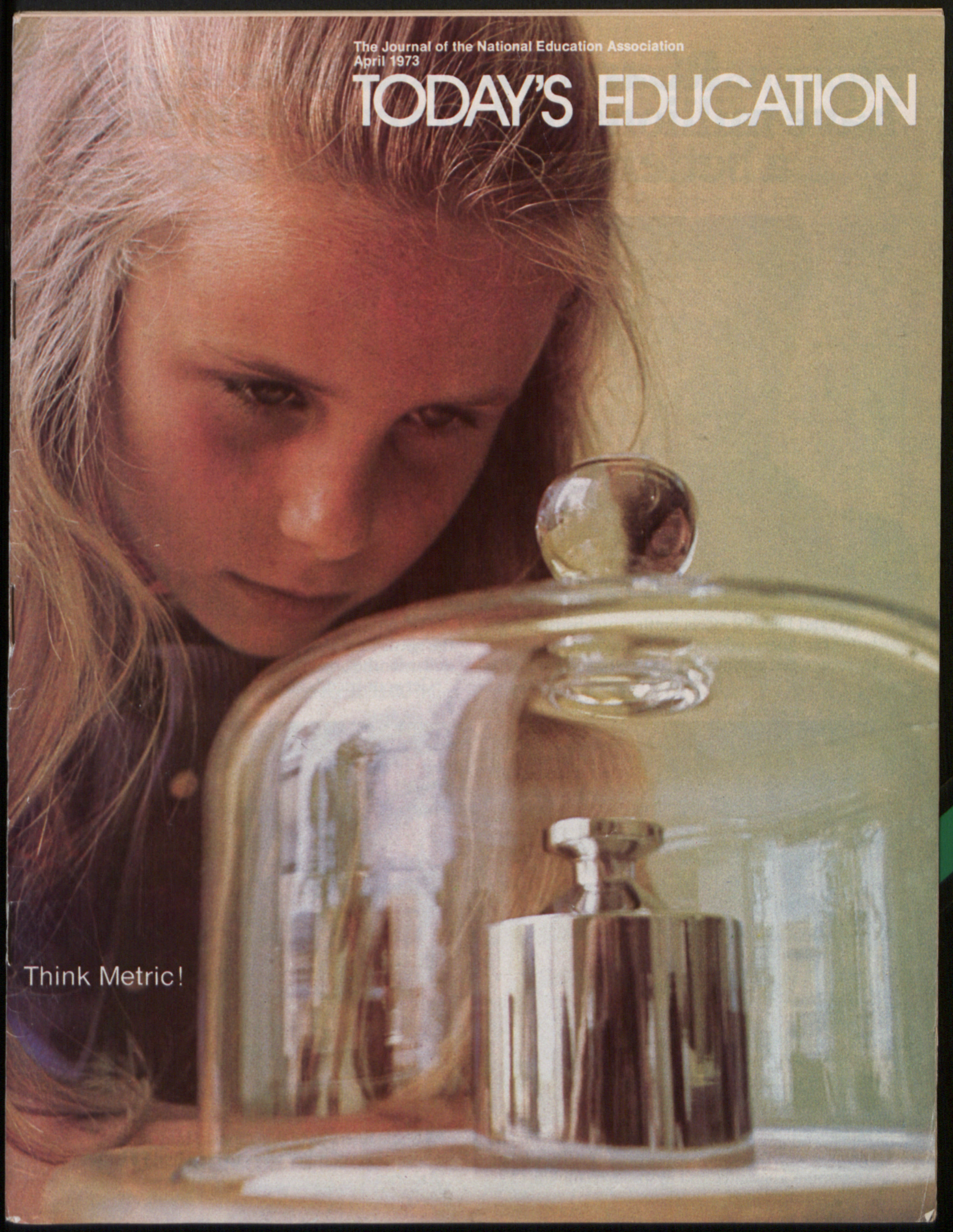
The Journal of the National Education Association
April 1973

TODAY'S EDUCATION



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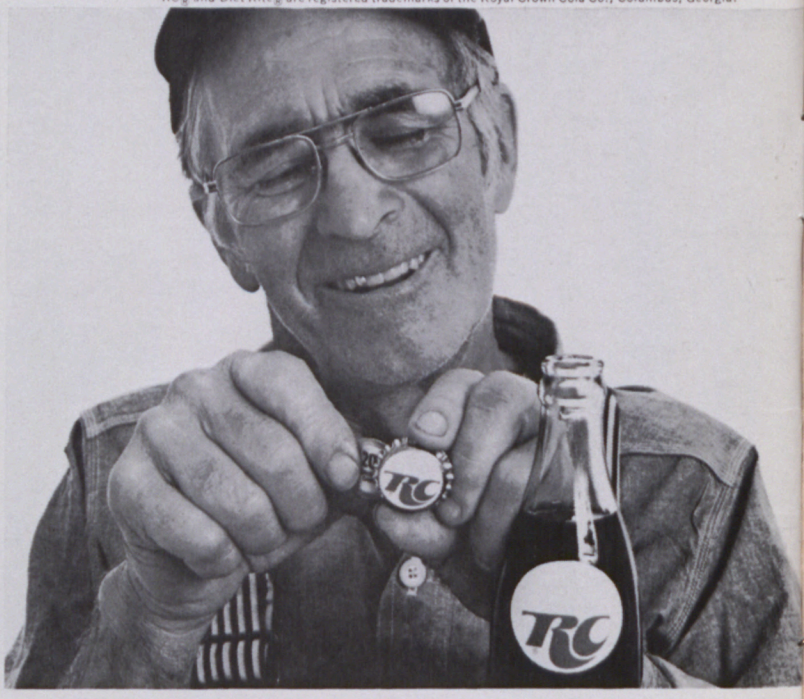

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TODAY'S EDUCATION

This Month's Cover: Like many other American youngsters, cover girl Lora Durkin of Gaithersburg, Maryland, is learning the metric system in school. Recently, she and her fifth grade classmates visited the National Bureau of Standards, where they saw the U.S. Prototype Kilogram, which serves as the mass standard for the United States. For an article on teaching the metric system, see pages 16-19.

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News and Trends

U.S. Government Share of School Financing Drops

The federal share of school revenues at 7.8 percent is a full percentage point lower than in 1967-68, according to the NEA annual report, "Estimates of School Statistics—1972-73." In commenting on the decrease, NEA President Catharine Barrett stated, "The federal government's response in the area of school financing seems to be proceeding in inverse ratio to the needs."

The new report also reveals that the average increase in salaries of instructional staff was only 4.2 percent over last year's average salary. Other report findings include: (a) This school year shows a continued, slightly accelerated decrease in public school enrollment. (b) There are 2.1 million teachers—only 0.7 percent more than last year and the smallest annual increase in the last 10 years. (c) An estimated 2.8 million high school students will graduate in 1972-73, about 2.4 percent more than in 1971-72.

Court Orders HEW To Press School Desegregation

A federal district court recently ordered the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to start enforcement proceedings against allegedly segregated public colleges in 10 states and school districts in 17 states. The proceedings could lead to deferral of new federal aid and, ultimately, to termination of all federal aid to these colleges, schools, and school districts.

Ruling in a suit filed on behalf of some 25 black students and parents, the court laid down strict timetables under which the Department should start administrative action to determine what progress, if any, is being made toward desegregation in the cited institutions. HEW may appeal the decision.

Beginning Teachers' Salaries Are Below Those in Industry

Starting salaries for beginning public school teachers with a bachelor's degree continue to lag considerably behind starting salaries for holders of that degree who enter private industry, according to an NEA Research report on 1972-73 salary differentials.

The report compared the average 1972-73 starting salary for teachers ($7,357) with starting salaries for graduates with majors other than education. The largest differential was for men engineering graduates, whose average starting salary of $10,608 was 44 percent higher than the teachers'. The smallest differential was 10 percent for women liberal arts graduates, whose average beginning salary was $8,112.

Denver CTA Launches Drive for Public Employee Coalition

With the help of a news conference featuring NEA President-elect Helen Wise, the Denver Classroom Teachers Association (DCTA) has launched its drive for the formation of a coalition of public employee organizations. The coalition will deal with such areas as joint political action, legislative lobbying, legal action, economic and special services benefits to members of participating organizations, and public relations, according to DCTA Executive Secretary Clarke Ballinger.

DCTA President Don Hefley emphasized the political possibilities for the Denver coalition, a project launched in support of the national Coalition of American Public Employees, including NEA; the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (AFSCME), AFL-CIO; and the International Association of Fire Fighters (IAFF), AFL-CIO.

Dr. Wise, in a statement featured on all four Denver television stations, in the major newspapers, and on radio, commended the project and stated, "The first step in any real attempt to create public employee unity is simply to begin to work together."

Terry Herndon Named NEA Executive Secretary

As we go to press, the NEA Executive Committee announces the selection of Terry Herndon, executive secretary of the Michigan Education Association, to be the new NEA executive secretary. For further details, see the *NEA Reporter.*

New Approaches Replace Orthodox Report Cards

Traditional report cards, which rate pupils by numbers or letters, appear to be on the way out, according to data from a survey published by the National School Public Relations Association, an NEA-associated organization. Many educators are experimenting with a broad range of new approaches from student self-evaluation forms to computerized report cards. The report of the survey, *Grading and Reporting: Current Trends in School Policies and Programs,* states that "widespread concern for new methods has brought about a rich variety of reporting forms and general agreement that grading and reporting should be used to promote growth rather than to reward, punish, or fix a student's rank in school or society."

FDA Warns Schools of Laser Hazards

A joint state-federal survey in seven states has found serious shortcomings in safety practices in the use of potentially dangerous lasers in high school and college science classes. The Bureau of Radiological Health of the Food and Drug Administration, which in cooperation with several state health agencies surveyed 288 lasers, announced that although FDA is unaware of any injuries from improper use of lasers in schools, such products do pose a potential hazard.

Among other safety precautions, FDA recommends (a) avoidance of direct laser viewing, (b) removal of objects with reflective surfaces from laser beam paths, (c) blockage of the beam when it is not needed, (d) preparation and testing of laser demonstrations when students are not present, and (e) use of key-locked switches to prevent the use of lasers by unauthorized persons.

Nutrition Survey Uncovers Many Malnourished Youth

A 10-state nutrition survey conducted among urban and rural families reveals substantial numbers of malnourished children and evidence of retarded growth in children from low-income families. A special committee of the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) analyzed the results of the survey, which was taken from 1968 through 1970 by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The AAP committee studied findings involving 22,000 children under 17 years of age.

The survey data show that diets during early childhood and adolescence varied according to geographic location, economic status, and race or ethnicity of the families. The caloric value of the diets and the intake of all nutrients were lowest for Blacks and Mexican Americans living in the Southern states.

Research Team Rates NSF Science Programs over Text-Based Ones

Preliminary findings of a Harvard-based research team confirm that the National Science Foundation elementary science programs in Massachusetts schools represent an improvement over the standard textbook-based ones. Dean K. Whitla, director of the team, stated: "The NSF programs offer schools an easy choice between a static classroom and a lively one, between the didactic lecture method and an interactive class mode, between *reading* about science and *doing* it."

He found that teachers of the new programs were willing to put in more work than those using textbooks because of the greater gains in learning the former found in their students and because the programs encouraged them to become more flexible in their teaching.

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Reordering National Priorities

Being vitally concerned about population growth, I want to thank you for publishing "Reordering National Priorities" (January). People need to know that even though the U.S. birthrate is dropping, our population problem isn't over.

Lamont Cole gave some good information in "How Fares Spaceship Earth?" (January), but I was amazed that he failed to mention the population problem. We should all be aware that the greater the population, the greater the stress on our environment.

—Jane Ham, *substitute teacher, Moses Lake, Washington.*

Values Clarifiers Can't Have It Both Ways

On the surface, the process described in "Tackling Racism by Clarifying Values" (January) appears to have merit. Actually, however, values clarification is either a cop-out or it is not values clarification.

Suppose one uses values clarification techniques to reveal to a racist student the causes and consequences of his racism, and the student chooses to remain racist. If the clarifier says, "OK, be a racist if you want; it's not for me to tell you what's right," then the whole thing is a cop-out. On the other hand, if the teacher attempts—in any way—to persuade the student to give up his racism (or if such was the intent of the process in the first place), then the teacher is not simply clarifying values, he is inculcating (his own) values.

If education is only to "clarify" values, then education cannot speak against racism, war, exploitation, and all the other social problems of the day. And of what use is education that makes no attempt to do something about these problems? So, if the clarifiers *aren't* trying to reduce racism and increase social justice, let them get lost; they're doing more harm than good. If they *are* trying to reduce racism, then they're trying to change values and should drop the pious claim to neutrality.

—John Streed, *teacher of English, Minnetonka High School, Excelsior, Minnesota.*

Black English

At first glance, Dorothy Z. Seymour's "Black English in the Classroom" (February) seemed convincing, but after further thought and discussion, I concluded that the black child is not unique in regard to the problem of dialect.

As a language major and the wife of a German-born American, I do know something about dialects. A German child may learn a dialect at home, but he learns Schrift Deutsch at school, where use of the dialect is unacceptable.

My point is that the problem is created by the analysts. Let the black child speak dialect at home and Standard English at school. The ultimate goal is to read English. Why go the long way around? Let's not introduce a third language as a bridge between the language of the home and that of the school.

—Alice Bolay, *retired teacher of French, Kirkwood, Missouri.*

TAP

I am a teacher of child development in a TAP (Teen-Age Parents) program and I read with keen interest the article on teen-age parents in your February special feature.

Our program, which is operated by the Health and Welfare Council and funded by the local school district, consists of volunteer teachers and a paid director. For the most part, the

(*Continued on page* 10)

David Cassidy
Hock Me Baby
02500
The Godfather
Original Soundtrack
13781
Rod Stewart
Never A Dull Moment
22335
LORETTA LYNN'S GREATEST HITS
03316
LED ZEPPELIN
12014
Johann Strauss Greatest Hits
Blue Danube, Emperor Waltz, Pizzicato Polka, others
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03292
The Best of The Guess Who
04306
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13713
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13708
Carole King
Tapestry
13296
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01756
JETHRO TULL
THICK AS A BRICK
10298
HENRY MANCINI AND DOC SEVERINSEN
Brass On Ivory
13684
GILBERT O'SULLIVAN HIMSELF
Alone Again (Naturally)
13792
THE 5TH DIMENSION
The Greatest Hits On Earth
02143
TWIN SET
DEREK AND THE DOMINOS
LAYLA
04213
THE BEST OF
SONNY & CHER
03379
MOODY BLUES
DAYS OF FUTURE PASSED
20084
RIMSKY-KORSAKOV
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Zip . . . (*Continued from page 8*)

teachers are drawn from the West Chester branch of the American Association of University Women, and the teacher-student ratio is small.

One of the major aims of the program is establishing teacher-student rapport and support for a trying period in a young girl's life. We encourage the girls to stay in their home school until the fifth or sixth month of pregnancy. After that they come to our "alternative school," which is housed in the educational facilities donated by the Westminster Presbyterian Church of West Chester. Five other agencies participate in the program.

Aside from enabling the girls to continue their academic education during pregnancy, TAP provides them with pre- and postnatal information and helps them make decisions about their babies and about the future.

—Mary Lou Sicoli, *teacher of child development, TAP Program, West Chester, Pennsylvania.*

Career Education Bonus

The author of "A Positive Approach to Disruptive Behavior" (January) reveals some excellent strategies, but you will note that at no point does she make any reference to the ambitions of the boys selected for the experimental classroom she writes about.

At least some of us are of the opinion that the current emphasis on career education offers one solution to our disruptive behavior problem. Seldom ever does one have any real trouble with the student who knows what his career objectives are.

—W. Earl Sams, *consultant in secondary education, State of California, Department of Education.*

Home Eye-Test Kit

Children's undiscovered eye disorders give rise to many reading difficulties, learning problems, and emotional disturbances.

Parents are often unaware of the need to test the eyes of young children for early signs of trouble. Or they live in communities where such preschool programs are not available.

For this reason, the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness has developed a test kit that is available free of charge to anyone requesting it. The Society hopes to break the bottleneck of inadequate community programs and alert parents to the possibility that their children's eyes may need attention.

One major obstacle to this educational effort, however, is our lack of access to the parents who would benefit most from such knowledge. We hope that readers of *Today's Education* will help us reach this audience by reporting the availability of this test.

—Virginia S. Boyce, *executive director, National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, 79 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 10016.*

Omission

Mrs. Thompson and I, of all things, failed to note in our article, "Home Starts I and II" (in the special feature on "Home-School Cooperation," February), that the projects we described are supported by ESEA Title III. We particularly regret this oversight because we have very much appreciated the leadership and help ESEA Title III personnel have given over the years.

—Ralph Scott, *director, Educational Clinic, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls.*

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Teacher Opinion Poll

Class Size in the Elementary School

If elementary school teachers could have the size classes they think best, they would average 5 fewer pupils apiece than they actually have in their classrooms, at present. In 1972, a nationwide sample of elementary teachers recommended a mean of 22 pupils per class as the best size for elementary school teaching, but their actual class size averaged 27 pupils per class.

Opinions of elementary school teachers regarding the best size for their classes have remained constant over the past decade. In 1961 and again in 1972, Teacher Opinion Polls conducted by NEA Research asked teachers, "In your opinion, what is the best size for most elementary school classes for effective teaching?" In both years, a majority of elementary teachers indicated a class size in the range of 20-24 pupils as the optimum for effective elementary teaching.

Progress in reducing class size, however, has been slow. The mean size of classes reported by elementary teachers has dropped only from 30 pupils to 27 pupils per class between 1961 and 1972. Although substantial improvement has been made through the elimination of some oversize classes, more than 1 elementary teacher in 3 still has 30 or more pupils in his class. Eight elementary teachers in 10, as large a proportion as in 1961, still have 25 or more pupils in their classes.

Although since 1961 over 50 percent of elementary teachers have recommended classes of 20-24 pupils as best for effective teaching, the percentage of elementary teachers who actually have classes of this size has only increased from 13 to 21 percent in the last 11 years.

Number of pupils per elementary class	Should be		Is	
	1961	1972	1961	1972
Less than 15	0.7%	0.8%	2.4%	2.2%
15-19	11.8	9.1	4.5	5.2
20-24	53.7	51.4	12.7	20.5
25-29	31.2	36.4	28.4	36.6
30 or more	2.6	2.4	52.0	35.5
Mean	.....	22	30	27
Median	.....	21	30	27

—NEA Research.

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IDEA EXCHANGE

Today's Education *invites NEA members to submit items for possible use in "Idea Exchange." Contributions must not have appeared previously in a periodical having state or national distribution. (Please include your home address as well as your school, position, and Zip Code.)*

Correcting Composition Papers

Too many teachers spend endless hours correcting careless student errors rather than shifting the learning experience of making corrections onto the shoulders of the students.

Here is a suggestion. Indicate mistakes by a number code and supply a key to this code when returning papers. For instance, 1 may represent a spelling error; 2, a punctuation error; 3, an antecedent that is unclear; and so on. Have the students find their errors, correct them, and return their papers to you.

—Roland P. Malboeuf, *English teacher, Dudley (Massachusetts) Junior High School.*

Gold Stars

My third graders love to receive stars on their papers, so I award them for neatness rather than for perfect papers. This gives all children a chance to earn a star, regardless of their academic ability, and immensely improves the appearance of their work.

It also seems that many of the slower children suddenly become proud of their papers and work just a little harder for a good grade to go with that gold star.

—Leonora E. Ackers, *third grade teacher, South Ridge Elementary School, Ridgefield, Washington.*

Cafeteria Quiz

Odd moments of "waiting time" can often be profitably filled, on any elementary grade level, with a game we call the Cafeteria Quiz.

List 10 or 12 tasty items and their prices on the board or on a placard. State a specific amount of money that the children can spend for lunch and give them a few minutes in which to choose their menus.

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how much change they should receive. The child who gives the right answer when called upon then reads his menu to the class.

This game can take from five to 15 minutes. The children enjoy it, and it gives them practice in addition and subtraction.

—Gwen Gracie, *remedial reading teacher, Crichfield School, La Porte, Indiana.*

Weird Writing

My students like to do what they named Weird Writing. They all start stories and write for three minutes. At the end of that time, each one passes his paper to the person behind him. Then they continue writing on the stories begun by the persons in front of them. This procedure is followed until each paper gets back to its originator.

As the stories get longer, the students need more time to read them before they add to them, so I gradually increase the time allowance.

When the papers have gone full circle, writing stops and reading aloud begins. No student has ever begged out of reading. The motivation is great. They have a ball, writing and reading willingly—even the shy youngsters.

—Jean Campbell, *English teacher, J. F. Kennedy Junior High School, Cupertino, California.*

Mosaics

I have found an exciting new medium for making mosaics. My local roofing company gives me supplies of tiny loose granules that have rubbed off of roofing shingles. These come in a variety of colors. In pencil, the children draw their designs or pictures (eliminating small details) on cardboard cut from boxes obtained from the grocery store. One box yields enough cardboard for four or five pupils.

Next, the children apply porous glue to small areas of their artwork and fill the areas with different colors of granules.

Combination art/social studies classes can use the granules in making relief maps.

—Karlyn Feltz, *art teacher, Ladysmith (Wisconsin) Elementary School.*

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MEXICO

GEORGE W. BRIGHT, *assistant professor, Department of Mathematical Sciences, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb; and* **CAROL-ANN JONES,** *fourth grade teacher, Westgate School, Arlington Heights, Illinois.*

There once was a student named Peter,
Who asked, "Why use meter and liter?"
But when he found out
He let out a shout,
"'Cause meter and liter are neater!"

This limerick, written by a first grade teacher at the close of a three-week workshop, reflects the ideal reaction of people who are exposed to the modernized metric system. Unfortunately, the approach often used to teach the metric system—conversion from the metric system to the English system and vice versa—promotes confusion and dislike for the only common measurement system whose components are meaningfully related to each other.

The basic unit of length in the metric system is the meter, which is about 10 percent longer than the yard. It is not the uniqueness of the basic unit, but rather the manner in which multiples and submultiples of the meter are derived that sets the metric system apart from other measurement systems. Our number system is based on ten and the powers of ten. The metric system is modeled on this system in order to exploit the inherent computational simplicity.

The first submultiple of the meter is obtained by dividing the meter into 10 equal parts, each of which is called a decimeter. This unit is still too large for some measurements, so a decimeter is divided into 10 parts, each of which is called a centimeter. The process of subdivision could, at least theoretically, continue indefinitely, and in some scientific work it is repeated many more times than most people would care to imagine. But for most real-world measurements, the centimeter is quite accurate enough.

Numerous mathematical properties can be derived or illustrated by the metric system, but that is a topic for some other setting. Of interest to us here is a way in which the metric system can be taught in the classroom. Undoubtedly, there are unique points to keep in mind at each grade level. However, an approach of this sort has even proven to be reasonably successful in the essential task of helping elementary school teachers develop skill in using metric units. Of course, the amount of time available can be much shorter than for pupils, and the instruction more condensed. But the involvement in making real measurements is present.

Teaching Children To Think METRIC

The class we shall talk about is a fourth grade in a Chicago suburb. These pupils stepped off into their exploration of the metric system by first experimenting with arbitrary measurement. These activities were introduced to show the need for a system of standard units of measurement.

Each child's hand span was used as his unit. The children began by working together to measure objects named by the teacher—for example, the width of their desks. They first estimated the measurement in terms of their hand spans and then performed the measurement. After measuring a number of objects together, they proceeded on their own to estimate and measure other objects in the room.

The following day the students compiled and compared results. The general feeling was one of dissatisfaction with the impossibility of comparing results or communicating measurements to others. Everyone agreed on the need for a standard unit of measurement.

The next step involved giving everyone a piece of construction paper of the same size. The paper was one decimeter in length (a little less than four inches). At this point, however, that fact was not explained. The basic process of measuring various objects was repeated; each person estimated and measured to the nearest unit and recorded his results. As far as the children were concerned, the unit they used was an arbitrary one.

When their information was compiled and recorded, the children were less dissatisfied. The results were fairly accurate for objects between one and 15 decimeters. Measurements of longer lengths, such as the height or the length of the room, were more discrepant.

With a little prodding, the students concluded that a longer unit was needed. The solution they proposed was to tape their units together. In groups of from two to seven, they taped their units together and remeasured some of the lengths they had disagreed about. The results were more accurate, and the students were satisfied.

In order to have them realize the need for a unit smaller than a decimeter, objects less than a decimeter long were listed on the board, and the children were instructed to measure them. The need became apparent right away, and their solutions followed almost as quickly. Some wanted to divide their papers in half; others, in thirds; and others, in eighths.

At this point the children were told that the standard unit is called a decimeter, that a decimeter is made up of 10 centimeters, and that 10 decimeters are a meter. They were then given metric tape measures, meter sticks, and centimeter rulers. Some children also realized that their personal rulers were marked in metric, so there was no lack of measuring tools.

Some of the earlier measurements were now repeated with metric units. Measurements were made first to the nearest decimeter,

This article appears at the suggestion of the NEA Board of Directors' committee to implement NEA Resolution C-16, Conversion to the Metric System.

then to the nearest meter, and finally to the nearest centimeter. In order to get the pupils to discover the relationships among the three units, some measurements were repeated. Ample time was provided for self-checking. The children also had opportunities to measure objects to the nearest centimeter, then to the nearest decimeter, and, if possible, to the nearest meter. Measuring in units in increasing order reinforced the relationships among the units.

Some pupils caught on right away. They found that if they measured to the nearest centimeter they could round off the measure to the nearest multiple of 10, drop the final zero, and have the correct number of decimeters. They were able to use a similar procedure to find the measures in meters. Others were fascinated to find—without quite knowing why—that when they had, for example, a three-digit measurement in centimeters, the first two digits often equaled the measurement in decimeters.

The key to developing skill in converting accurately among the linear units seems clearly to be frequent practice. In this way, children can discover the relationships and then assist their classmates.

A few members of the class wanted to be more accurate. They noticed the millimeter markings on their rulers, asked what they were, and then proceeded to use them. Some were curious about long distances, and since by this time they were aware that they were studying the metric system, an animated discussion of kilometers evolved.

One of the more important features of the activities used with the fourth grade class is practice in estimating lengths. Estimation acted as a motivation for accuracy in that the boys and girls wanted to check their guesses. Such self-checking activities prepare them to move away from the structure of the classroom to develop their own learning experiences. They also seemed to enjoy the chance to guess the answer before verifying their estimates.

Two different kinds of estimation were used to help them develop concepts of the metric lengths. The first consisted of specifying an object, such as the teacher's desk, and asking for estimates of one of the dimensions of the object, such as its height. The children then verified their guesses independently.

The second consisted of stating a measurement, such as seven decimeters, and asking the children to locate an object, solely by sight, that had a dimension with the specified measure. Each child could then measure the object he selected to determine whether his choice was a good one.

The two kinds of estimation do not seem to be the same kind of activity. Fewer children were successful with the second method of estimation than with the first. The most accurate estimators in the first setting were not necessarily the most accurate in the second. This fact has also been observed in working with elementary school teachers in a workshop setting.

Estimation practice seems to have several consequences. It helps

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

December 6, 1972

Dear Girls and Boys:

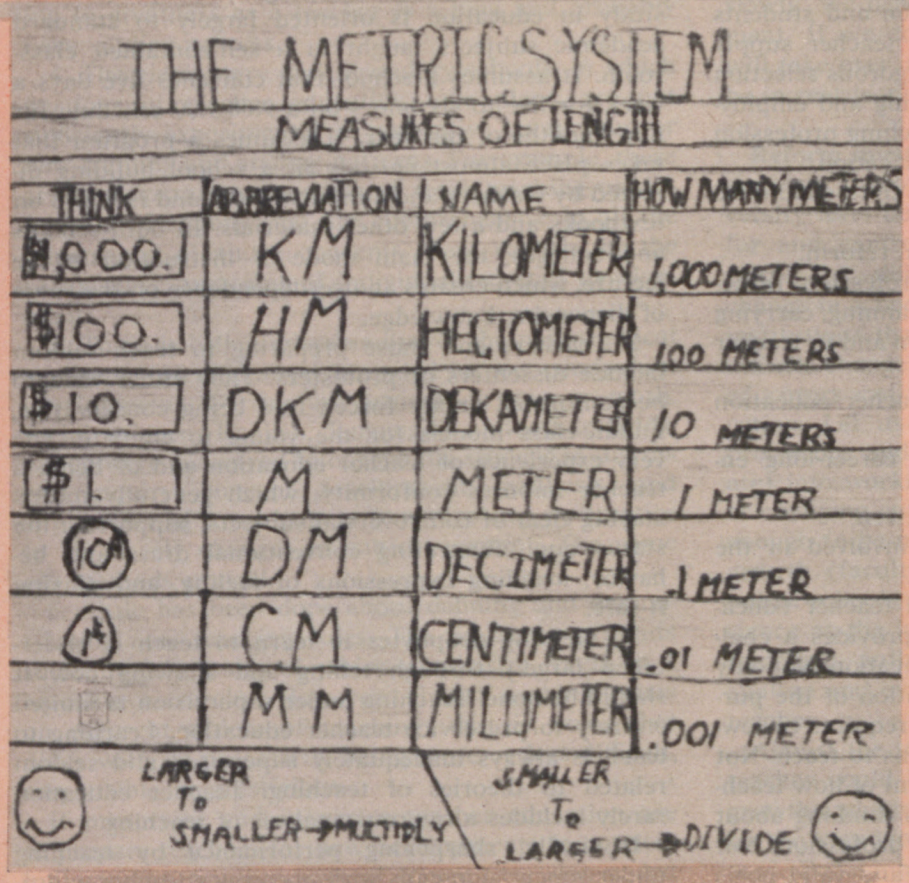
It was particularly kind of you to remember me with the "Metric Plaque" which you made and enclosed with your thoughtful letter. I am always pleased to learn of interesting school projects such as the one you are engaged in. You are to be commended for your ingenuity in creating study aids for use by your fellow students, and for your determination to broaden your understanding of the meter as a standard of measurement. Keep up the good work!

With my best wishes to each of you, and to your teacher, for the years ahead,

Sincerely,

Richard Nixon

Mr. Levin's Sixth Grade Class
Intermediate School
19th and Bay Avenues
Ocean City, New Jersey 08226



With a mini-grant of $1,000 from the New Jersey State Department of Education, Thomas Levin's sixth graders have made charts, booklets, meter sticks, and wooden plaques like the one above to explain the metric system to other classes in the school. Even President Nixon congratulated the class on its project.

develop the concepts of multiples of numbers, especially multiples of the powers of 10. Further, it may aid the growth of mental concepts of spatial visualization. It certainly does force children to make visual comparisons among dimensions of objects.

One other metric unit was introduced—the kilogram, which is the unit of mass or weight. At sea level, a mass of one kilogram weighs about 2.2 pounds. The only planned experience with this unit was to have each child weigh himself on a metric bathroom scale. In fact, almost anything that could stand or be placed on the scale was weighed. The children collected empty boxes and cans from their kitchen at home —containers that have the weight listed both in ounces and grams. These objects provided examples of the common use of metric units.

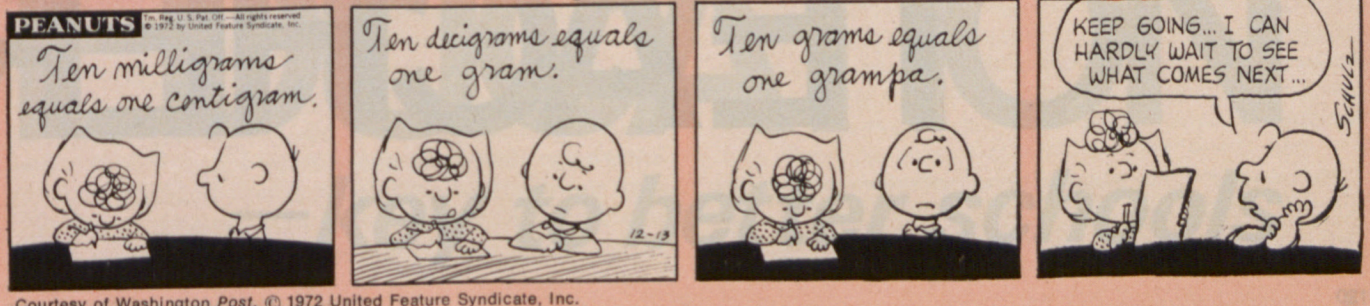
Another activity deserves a comment. After several weeks' practice, the children were asked to write a story describing what the world would be like if there were no measurement at all.

The activities described here constitute one way in which the metric system can be introduced to a class of fourth graders.

After most of the pupils develop adequate skills in multiplication, experiences in working with area and volume can be introduced. Too, the children have not yet discovered the meanings of the prefixes, but these meanings will develop with use. It seems inappropriate to force the children to learn the prefixes, for this would promote rote rather than meaningful learning. Since these fourth graders had been introduced to fractional but not decimal notation, they found it difficult to record their measurements in decimals.

The boys and girls seemed to grasp the concepts of the metric system as long as they were not pushed too fast. Repeated practice extending over a long period of time appears to be the best way to develop skills and confidence in using metric units. One suspects that an analogous approach would be successful at many different grade levels.

Experience with the units will breed familiarity with the actual sizes of the respective units, and it is this familiarity that allows people to make a smooth transition to the metric system. This familiarity, in turn, will free people to THINK METRIC. □


PEANUTS
Ten milligrams equals one centigram.
Ten decigrams equals one gram.
Ten grams equals one grampa.
KEEP GOING... I CAN HARDLY WAIT TO SEE WHAT COMES NEXT...
SCHULZ

Courtesy of Washington *Post*, © 1972 United Feature Syndicate, Inc.

The time is ripe for reform in public education and in teacher education. Laymen and students are demanding it. The current teacher supply and demand situation permits more rigorous selection of applicants and candidates in training and employment. And both the public and the teaching profession are talking about accountability in education.

Education reform at this point in time should be based on the following assumptions:

1. Schools and teaching need radical reform.
2. All segments of the teaching profession (especially teachers) must be involved in planning, carrying out, and evaluating reform in education and in teacher education.
3. Public school instruction and teacher education must be closely related.
4. Teacher education should be a career-long enterprise.
5. Teaching must have a career pattern.
6. Parents and students must be involved in the reform of education.

Pervasive reform of education and teacher education in terms of these assumptions provides a challenge unparalleled in the history of education. Not only does such reform require an examination of the purpose and content of education, it also requires reviewing what teaching is and how one learns to teach. Not only does it involve a basic reassessment of how teachers are now educated, it also prompts thinking about changing the whole character of the profession. Not only does it require specifying clear and valid goals for education and teacher education, it also calls for laying out process and strategy for achieving reform.

The problems central to reform of education interrelate with teacher education so inextricably that it is essential to deal with both at once. The problems to be attacked can be clustered as follows:

This article is developed from an article by Dr. Edelfelt in the 1972 Summer Issue of the *Journal of Teacher Education.*

1. Most undergraduate and graduate professional study in education is oriented largely to standard academic subjects taught in a self-contained classroom. It assumes a school that convenes five days a week for five to six hours on a 9:00-3:00 schedule for nine months of the year. It assumes a program that takes place almost entirely in a school building directed by teachers and administrators and is based on textbooks and a few other materials. In both schools and colleges, the main mode of instruction is the lecture, which creates an overdependence on the value of dispensing knowledge.
2. Teachers and those preparing to teach seldom include dissenters or protesters. They either tend to be conformist or are forced into being conservative, middle-class models for the young to emulate. The very experience of teacher education and of being a teacher imposes conformity, which generally means staying clear of controversial subjects, supporting the status quo, illustrating conventional dress and behavior, avoiding expressions of feeling, and playing it safe.
3. Helping neophytes to learn to teach is undertaken largely through telling and showing how it should be done. Teaching under supervision is limited entirely to preservice teacher education. Learning to teach is always inadequately supervised and seldom related to theories of teaching. Teacher education rarely includes a rigorous analysis of teaching.

Ironically, sharpening performance by teaching under supervision ends with preservice teacher education. Graduate study and in-service education are hardly ever designed to improve teaching performance. Graduate courses, almost always devised by college professors, too often are shoddily put together, vapid, dreary efforts. The very fact that they are separate, distinct pieces detracts from holistic goals and achievement in developing better teachers.

Worst of all, there is no continuum of preservice and in-service teacher education. Preservice training terminates abruptly just as practice and in-service

THE REFORM OF TEACHER

training begin. There is no clear suggestion that growing to greatness as a teacher is a long and probably never-ending process.

4. The elementary and secondary schools, in which portions of teacher education take place, are not sufficiently experimental in innovative curriculum or new training and staffing patterns. For example, there are few operational models of team teaching or differentiated staffing that are comprehensive in all the dimensions of those concepts. Few schools in the nation have programs of individualized staff development.

5. There is little understanding of the philosophical and pedagogical changes intended in new curriculum developments. Curriculum projects in science, math, social science, English, languages, and other fields, which were conceived to engage the student in discovery, inquiry, concept development, synthesis, and application of knowledge, often turn out in practice to be merely changes in subject content. The same old methods prevail.

6. Little has been done about defining and demonstrating new teaching roles. The literature presents some models, most of which emphasize levels of a teaching hierarchy. However, almost nothing exists on different orders of teaching; that is, roles that differ without necessarily being more or less difficult, responsible, or prestigious.

If preservice and in-service teacher education are to prepare teachers for new developments in curriculum content, new concepts of school (e.g., nongraded school, open school), and new staffing patterns, these six problems present some hellishly difficult roadblocks. A teacher education program could work into all of these problems gradually, and that is how it may happen. However, it may be too late for gradualism if educators are to exert initiative and leadership. If there is much delay, someone else will be calling the tune.

Part of the creed in education circles is that change is a slow process. But with the survival of the American public school at stake, there is no time to move slowly. We need to learn how to accelerate improvement. If we don't, other agencies and organizations will take over, and the survival of public schools may be in real jeopardy.

Reform must begin in several places, but it is particularly appropriate to move at the college and university level because that is where the responsibility for and control of teacher education now rest. It would be difficult—and indefensible—to call for change in schools without a substantial change in the institutions that educate teachers.

Such change calls, first, for altering what teacher educators can most easily control—professional education. Let us suppose this begins with organizing professors and students (undergraduate and graduate) into working teams: teams that study and work at changing curriculum and instruction; teams small enough to be manageable and to deal with individual growth (faculty and students); teams that work in public schools as well as college; teams that use experience as the laboratory for the study of psychology, sociology, anthropology, and education; teams that analyze and evaluate how each individual learns and teaches.

Almost the total life of the becoming or developing teacher could be considered as the curriculum. The growth and development of the total personality could be the standard against which achievement is evaluated. Behavioral objectives would need to be established, of course, and within the context of broad goals, each team would need to develop its own. The very identification of such goals—and the testing of their adequacy—could be part of the learning experience.

The college program should, however, be closely related to and highly dependent on what is done to solve other problems. This would necessarily mean a better blend of liberal and professional education. Instead of following the patchwork approach of attaching

EDUCATION
—key to better schools

addenda to students as they pass through courses, professors will need to work at developing people who will be teachers.

Reform of teacher education also requires input from the community and the school. It would mean testing what is learned against the reality of live situations, and it would involve students and teachers alike in the political process of governing themselves and promoting change. Most important, the student of teaching, whether he be prospective or practicing professional, must have a voice in determining what he studies, how he learns, and what he becomes.

The selection of people to become teachers should be accomplished in very different ways. In every working team of instructors and students, there should be a balance of different ethnic and social-class groups. There should also be students and teachers with a range of talents who represent different types, from conformist to nonconformist, from liberal to conservative. Selectors should seek out people who have already developed such qualities as creativity, insightfulness, sensitivity, curiosity, and tenacity, but they should also try to identify those with the potential for developing such qualities. A good deal of screening will happen through thoughtful, deliberate self-selection.

The program should include the kind of evaluation and self-evaluation that seeks to test aptitude, potential, adaptiveness, and all the other qualities the team believes important. Ultimately, all evaluation of achievement should be in terms of competency criteria. The program should be designed to stretch and broaden students of teaching, socially and culturally. Students should do more than read about subcultures, ghettoes, deviates, the handicapped. Students preparing to be teachers should also work with many types of people in a variety of settings. Experience again becomes a selector. The basic and controversial problems of man should be confronted in depth and directly.

If students of teaching are participants in a variety of dynamic living situations, decision making and scholarship would become more than an academic matter. In other words, they would be tested in actual teaching, not just discussed in methods courses. Students of teaching would focus on learning and analyzing what they do and what they can do. They should be encouraged to test, analyze, and develop their own teaching styles.

Much of what such study will involve hinges on developing a total concept of education, getting at what elementary and secondary schools are all about; analyzing the way schools reflect, serve, lead, and respond to their communities; ascertaining the teachers needed in such schools; planning how such teachers can be developed; and developing the specifications for staffing patterns.

No matter how successful or effective preservice teacher education can be made, however, it is only the beginning. Today, no one can be educated on a one-shot basis for a lifetime of service. The right in-service education becomes the means for growth and professional development—the key mechanism for keeping schools responsive to the real world.

We need, then, to establish teacher-education schools, that is, elementary and secondary schools or settings adjacent to schools where the education of teachers takes place concurrently with the education of children. These should be institutions in which the community, the school, and the college have reached some mutual agreements (contracts) about common and individual purposes. The specifications for such an operation include the following:

1. The school district, the local teachers association, and the college would specify their purposes and mutual commitment.

2. The school would be a learning laboratory for all who work there. The teacher education aspect would be as important to the regular faculty as to prospective teachers and college personnel.

3. The curriculum and modes of instruction would be worked out and tested against the broad goals established by parents and the public. Educators would attempt to involve parents as much as possible in all dimensions of the school program.

Wherever possible, professional decisions would be explained and discussed with parents. They would be helped to recognize the complicated nature of such things as learning; the uniqueness of their own and other children; and the meaning and importance of evaluation of learning and growth, in relation not only to the normative measures typically used but also, and more importantly, to the assessment of individual achievement.

4. School faculty teams would include many prospective and junior teachers (all salaried) in order to make possible a much more individualized program of learning for youngsters.

This concept of school (for youngsters) would develop curriculum and organization that would get away from group, lockstep learning. (This does not mean eliminating sequence in learning, nor does it mean destroying curriculum organization.)

A program would be designed for each student: Time, materials, and approaches to learning would be arranged, used, and evaluated to fit the learner's purpose and needs. It would be a live, realistic nurturing of individual growth and development in the context of the society in which the student lives. It would be based on the assumption that much is not known about what a student needs to learn, and certainly all students need not learn the same things.

The focus would be on learning how to learn; on developing productive, positive attitudes about learning; on intriguing the student with the intellectual process; on the application of thinking processes in solving human problems; on developing skills and knowledge that have purpose and that cultivate human satisfaction; on human relations skills; and on fostering self-understanding and personal adequacy.

(*Continued on page* 52)

The Young Worker & the Work Ethic

It appears that young people, more than any other group, have taken the lead in demanding better working conditions. Out of a work force of more than 85 million, 22.5 million are under the age of 30. These young workers are more affluent and better educated than their parents were at their age. Factually, that is nearly all we can generalize about this group. But such authors as Kenneth Keniston, Theodore Roszak, Charles Reich, and others assert that great numbers of young people in this age group are members of a counterculture.

The President's Commission on Campus Unrest wrote that this subculture "found its identity in a rejection of the work ethic, materialism, and conventional social norms and pieties." Many writers have stressed the alleged revolt against work, but empirical findings do not always support the impressionistic commentaries.

It is commonly agreed that there is a difference between the behavior of youth and their real attitudes. Many young people do wear beads, listen to rock, and sometimes smoke pot; but few actually live in communes (and these few may be working very hard), and even fewer are so alienated that they are unwilling to play a productive role in society.

From 1968 to 1971, Daniel Yankelovich conducted national attitude studies of college students and found that two-thirds of them profess mainstream views in general, particularly in their feelings about work (and private business):

- Seventy-nine percent believe that a meaningful career is a very important part of a person's life.
- Eighty-five percent feel business is entitled to make a profit.
- Seventy-five percent believe it is morally wrong to collect welfare when you can work.
- Only 30 percent would welcome less emphasis on working hard.

While student feelings about work itself are generally high, Yankelovich found that attitudes toward authority are changing rapidly. In 1968, 56 percent of all students indicated that they did not mind the prospect of being "bossed around" on the job. By 1971, only 36 percent see themselves willingly submitting to such authority. And, while 86 percent of these students still believe that society needs some legally based authority to prevent chaos, they nevertheless see a distinction between this necessity and an authoritarian work setting.

Yankelovich also found a shift in student opinion on the issue that "hard work will always pay off" from a 69 percent affirmation in 1968 to a 39 percent affirmation in 1971. This certainly was, in part, indicative of the conditions in the job market for college graduates in 1971. But more basically, we believe, it highlights a paradox inherent in a populace with increasing educational achievement. Along with the mass media, education and its credentials are raising expectations faster than the economic system can meet them.

The following case study of a young woman who is a recent college graduate illustrates the gap between expectations and reality:

> I didn't go to school for four years to type. I'm bored; continuously humiliated. They sent me to Xerox school for three hours. . . . I realize that I sound cocky, but after you've been in the academic world, after you've had your own class (as a student teacher) and made your own

This article is adapted from *Work in America*, a report of a special task force to the U.S. Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. December 1972.

plans, and someone tries to teach you to push a button—you get pretty mad. They even gave me a gold-plated plaque to show I've learned how to use the machine.

The problem is compounded by the number of students who are leaving school with advanced degrees, like the young Chicago lawyer in the following case:

You can't wait to get out and get a job that will let you do something that's really important. . . . You think you're one of the elite. Then you go to a place like the Loop and there are all these lawyers, accountants, et cetera, and you realize that you're just a lawyer. No, not even a lawyer—an employee; you have to check in at nine and leave at five. I had lots of those jobs—summers—where you punch in and punch out. You think it's going to be different but it isn't. You're in the rut like everybody else.

Today's youth are expecting a great deal of intrinsic reward from work. Yankelovich found that students rank the opportunity to "make a contribution," "job challenge," and the chance to find "self-expression" at the top of the list of influences on their career choices. A 1960 survey of more than 400,000 high school students was repeated for a representative sample in 1970, and the findings showed a marked shift from the students' valuing job security and opportunity for promotion to valuing "freedom to make my own decisions" and "work that seems important to me."

Many of these student findings were replicated in the sample of young workers included in the Survey of Working Conditions, a monumental study conducted by the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center. For example, it seems as true of young workers as it is of students that they expect a great deal of fulfillment from work. But the Survey findings show that young workers are not deriving a great deal of satisfaction from the work they are doing. Less than a quarter of young workers reply "very often" when asked the question, "How often do you feel you leave work with a good feeling that you have done something particularly well?"

Other findings document that young workers place more importance on the value of interesting work and their ability to grow on the job than do their elders. Also, they place less importance than do older workers on such extrinsic factors as security and whether or not they are asked to do excessive amounts of work. But the Survey found a significant gap between the expectations or values of the young workers and what they actually experience on the job. For example, they value challenging work highly but say that the work they are doing has a low level of challenge.

It has also been found that a much higher percentage of younger than older workers feel that management emphasizes the *quantity* more than the *quality* of their work. Furthermore, it is shown that this adversely affects the satisfaction of younger workers. Such findings contradict the viewpoint that there is a weakening of the "moral fiber" of youth.

Many young union members are challenging some basic assumptions about "a fair day's work for a fair day's pay." In the past, unions concerned themselves with establishing what a fair day's pay would be, while the employer's prerogative was to determine what constitutes a fair day's work. Young workers are now challenging both unions and management by demanding a voice in the setting of both standards, as the following case illustrates:

Three young workers, aged 20 and 21, were hired to clean offices at night. One evening the foreman caught one of the young janitors (who went to school during the day) doing his homework; another was reading the paper; and the third was asleep with his feet upon a desk. The foreman exploded and gave them a written warning. The workers filed a grievance protesting the warnings: "We cleaned all the offices in five hours by really hustling, and who the hell should get upset because we then did our own thing?" One young worker said, "At school during study period I get my studies done in less than the hour and no one bugs me when I do other things for the rest of the time. We cleaned all those offices in five hours instead of eight. What more do they want?"

The union steward said he tried hard to understand what they were saying: "But the company has the right to expect eight hours' work for eight hours' pay. I finally got the kids to understand by taking them outside and telling them that if they got the work finished in five hours, then the company would either give them more work or get rid of one of them. They're spacing it out nicely now and everyone's happy," he said, satisfied to have settled the grievance within the understood rules.

The author of this study writes that the young workers were far from satisfied. They wanted the union to establish what had to be done and how much they would be paid to do it, and then they wanted the same freedom that professionals have to decide how to operate within the time and work frame allotted.

In summary, we interpret these various findings not as demonstrating a shift away from valuing work per se among young people but as a shift away from their willingness to take on meaningless work in authoritarian settings.

It would be a mistake to believe that the new attitudes toward authority and the meaning of work are limited to hippies. Judson Gooding writes that young managers, both graduates of business schools and executive trainees, "reflect the passionate concerns of youth in the 1970's—for individuality, openness, humanism, concern, and change—and they are determined to be heard."

Some young people are rejecting the corporate or bureaucratic worlds while not rejecting work or the concept of work or profit. Gooding tells of one young former executive who quit his job with a major corporation because:

You felt like a small cog. Working there was dehumanizing and the struggle to get to the top didn't seem worth it. They made no effort to encourage your participation. The decisions were made in those rooms with closed doors. . . . The serious error they made with me was not giving me a glimpse of the big picture from time to time, so I could go back to my little detail, understanding how it related to the whole.

This young man has now organized his own small

business and designed his own job. As the publisher of a counterculture newspaper, he might be considered a radical in his beliefs and life-style, yet he says, "Profit is not an evil." Of course, many young workers do question the *use* of profits, especially those profits they feel are made at the expense of society or the environment.

Perhaps it would be useful to analyze the views of today's youth in terms of their grandparents' beliefs. Today's youth believe in independence, freedom, and risk—in short, they may have the entrepreneurial spirit of early capitalism. Certainly they are more attracted to small and growing companies, to small businesses and to handicrafts, than to the bureaucracy (be it private or public).

On the other hand, their parents share a managerial ethic that reflects the need for security, order, and dependence that is born of hard times. Of course, this is being a bit unfair to the older generation and a bit overgenerous with our youth, but it serves to get us away from the simplistic thinking that "the Protestant ethic has been abandoned."

Who in America ever had the Protestant ethic and when? Did the poor people or even middle-class people ever have it? Sebastian de Grazia argues that the Protestant ethic was never more than a myth engendered by the owner and managerial classes to motivate the lower working class—a myth that the latter never fully accepted. Clearly, it is difficult to measure the past allegiance of a populace to an ideology.

We *can*, however, measure the impact of the present work environment on youth's motivation to work. For example, the Survey of Working Conditions found that youth seem to have a lower attachment to work than their elders on the same job. This might be so for several reasons other than a change in the work ethic.

- First, as we have noted, young people have high expectations generated by their greater education.
- Second, their greater affluence makes them less tolerant of unrewarding jobs.
- Third, many new workers, particularly women, don't have to work at permanent jobs and are, therefore, more demanding.
- Fourth, all authority in our society is being challenged.
- Fifth, many former students are demanding at their place of work what they achieved in part on their campuses a few years ago—a voice in setting goals. The lecture has been passé for several years on many campuses—in colloquia and in seminars students challenge teachers. Managers are now facing the products of this progressive education. (One wonders what will happen when the children of today's open classroom, who set their own goals and plan their own schedules, enter the work force.)
- Sixth, young blue-collar workers, who have grown up in an environment in which equality is called for in all institutions, are demanding the same rights and expressing the same values as college graduates.
- Seventh, the growing professionalism among young workers has caused them to feel loyal to their peer group, task, or discipline rather than to their work organization.

In sum, it does not appear that young workers have a lower commitment to work than do their elders. The problem lies in the interaction between work itself and the changing social character of today's generation and in the failure of decision makers in business, labor, and government to recognize this fact.

The young worker is not in revolt against work but against the authoritarian system developed by those who felt that the worker was both stupid and afraid of responsibility. This view is summed up in Frederick Taylor's classic dictum to the worker:

> For success, then, let me give one simple piece of advice beyond all others. Every day, year in and year out, each man should ask himself, over and over again, two questions. First, "What is the name of the man I am now working for?" and having answered this definitely, then, "What does this man want me to do, right now?"

The simplistic authoritarianism in this statement would appear ludicrous to the young worker who is not the uneducated and irresponsible person on whom Taylor's system was premised.

From our reading of what youth wants, it appears that under current policies, employers may not be able to motivate young workers at all. Instead, employers must create conditions in which the worker can motivate himself.

The most rewarding race is probably one that one runs against oneself. Young people seem to realize this. They talk less positively than do their elders about competition with others. But they do talk about self-actualization and other "private" values. Yankelovich found that 40 percent of students—an increasing percentage—do not believe that "competition encourages excellence," and 80 percent would welcome more emphasis on self-expression.

Compared to previous generations, the young person of today wants to measure his improvement against a standard he sets for himself. The problem with the way work is organized today is that it will not allow the worker to realize his own goals.

Because of the legacy of Taylorism, organizations set a fixed standard for the worker but often without telling him clearly why or how that standard was set. More often than not, the standard is inappropriate for the worker. And, in a strange contradiction to the philosophy of efficient management, the organization seldom gives the worker the wherewithal to achieve the standard. It is as if the runner did not know where the finish line was; the rules make it a race that no worker can win.

Whether or not young workers' intolerance of such poor management signals temporary or enduring changes in the work ethic is problematic. More important is how management and society will reckon with the new emphasis that the workplace should lose its authoritarian aura and become a setting for satisfying and self-actualizing activity. □

Student Participation in Social Change

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□ **In the past, schools served the function of transferring** culture and information from one generation to the next. As James Coleman has pointed out, this role of being the major information source was important when societal changes evolved slowly and society in general was information-poor and action-rich. In our time, however, the knowledge explosion in combination with all the new forms of communication media have led to what Marshall McLuhan has called *implosion* of information, resulting in an information-rich and action-poor society.

Furthermore, societal changes occur over much shorter periods of time. Many have argued that the school lags behind in changing its old role of a major information giver that conveys knowledge mainly by one-way communication from teacher to student. After considering important research findings regarding a young person's political development, this article will introduce a methodology for enhancing an individual's capacity to be a participant in social change.

Many people today are worried about the direction of change and about how problems of violence, overpopulation, ecological imbalance, violation of human rights, and poverty may be solved. Although social change is necessary to rectify these conditions, the *goals* and *means* of the change are controversial and often derived from diverse ideologies and political beliefs. In the following, we assume the desirability of nonviolent, democratic social change and the necessity for compassionate and knowledgeable individuals to make this change possible. Participation in democratic social change requires the *perception* that change is necessary in order to meet the challenges of present and future, the *desire* for active participation, and the *feeling* that such participation can be effective (often called political efficacy).

Research has shown that the years before 16 are formative with regard to the young person's social development. The fact that political attitudes develop and change rapidly in the period of elementary and high school was one of the major points demonstrated by early studies of political socialization (Robert Hess and Judith Torney, Fred Greenstein, Kenneth Langton and M. Kent Jennings). Early studies also established that the definition of political attitudes should include more than choice of political party and candidate.

Young people's attitudes toward governmental authority, feelings about the efficacy of citizens' political action, support for civil liberties, belief in the underlying justice of the system of laws, and understanding of aspects of international relations have been extensively explored. We know a great deal descriptively about these attitudes and are aware that

they have their roots in the elementary school years and change rapidly from that base. We know, too, that children in general have a much clearer understanding of the *structure* of their government than they have of the *processes* involved in its operation.

At an early age, American children know who the President is and that the two other major branches of government are the Congress and the Supreme Court. They have only a vague idea, however, about how these structures relate to each other or to individual citizens or groups. This is one reason why it is critical for educators to deal with social change as a *process* rather than focusing so much attention on the present *structure* of government. Because a child is unlikely to understand political or social processes and change, he must be provided with the impetus and information to study these processes.

Although the child learns many things about social processes from family, peer group, and mass media sources, the school is important in his acquisition of orientations toward social issues and skills in dealing with them.

The young person's way of dealing with social change is also influenced by his experience with change within the educational institution he knows well. Some of what he learns in school about these matters may be direct and intended communication through textbook or teacher presentations. However, unintentional communication also takes place.

The reluctance of a teacher to discuss social issues may convey more about freedom of speech than any lecture on that topic. The absence of material in textbooks about social conflict may convey to the child that social conflict does not exist. Yet on TV the child sees war and sometimes violent demonstrations as responses to instances of injustice. Although the teacher may not intend to communicate a totally benign picture of the world and the television newscaster may not intend to instruct that violence is the most effective and appropriate way to bring about social change, these messages and their contradictions are probably conveyed to the child as powerfully as many things written in the curriculum.

We shall now identify elements in the learning process that we believe are appropriate to give individuals the qualities and competencies necessary for participation in democratic and nonviolent social change.

The recently published "Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines" (National Council for the Social Studies, 1971) suggests that social studies "should deal with the real social world" and "should draw from currently valid knowledge representative of man's experience, culture, and beliefs."

What is the "real social world" and what is "valid knowledge?" The definitions one gives to these two concepts become of utmost importance in identifying necessary components of a curriculum designed to foster an individual who can meet the challenge of the future. In the ensuing discussion, we shall refer to the proposed methodology as *world order education.* The world order approach has been developed through more than a decade of research and development of educational materials and processes with the explicit purpose of involving students and researchers alike in enhancing their social change knowledge and skills. The underlying values of this effort are social justice, ecological balance, economic welfare, limitation of violence, and participation in decision making. (For more information on available materials and services write to one of the three programs—School Program, University Program, or World Order Models Project—at the Institute for World Order [formerly World Law Fund], 11 West 42nd Street, New York, NY 10036.)

We shall now discuss the world order methodology in light of its two major components, reflection and action. The real social world as it relates to world order education may be broadly identified in terms of time and space.

Time. Persons participating in social change process must arrive at a valid knowledge base of what was, what is, what will be if present trends continue, and, finally, what should be. The understandings or models arrived at in gathering information in relation to these four steps may be called descriptive (what was, what is), predictive (what will be), and prescriptive (what should be). A prescriptive model of a preferred world 20 to 30 years hence would be relevant to students and would provide them with the possibility of comparing this preferred world with predicted models (forecasts by researchers). For instance, if world population continues to grow at the current rate of about 2 percent annually, it will double in 35 years.

Space. In the shrunken world of the twentieth century, it seems obvious that no social reality can be separated from the total of human experience. We should have learned enough about the finiteness and oneness of spaceship earth to understand the foolishness of surgical techniques whose purpose is isolation and specialization, whether in the ecological spheres or the man-made spheres.

Synergy has become, especially through the work of Buckminster Fuller, the catchphrase for physical and social reality—all parts of a system are interrelated, and the behavior of whole systems cannot be predicted from any of their separate parts. Also implied in this concept is the interrelationship of various forms of knowledge or various disciplines. Interdisciplinary study of an issue would involve the humanities as well as social and physical sciences. The individual today needs to be concerned about and participate in decisions that have direct implications for the survival of homo sapiens and the ecological stability of the planet.

Never before has the need for global concern and identity been greater. Concrete examples of this are (a) the individual's dependence for his economic welfare upon the world economic system—trade patterns, monetary policy, resources, markets, consumption and production patterns among nations as well as within

his own and other nations; (b) the potential proliferation of nuclear weapons, which may have disastrous consequences for the whole earth.

World order education, therefore, implies general knowledge about the closed system of our planet and in-depth knowledge about certain system parts (subsystems), *but always in the context of other system parts and the whole system.* Thus, study of a community becomes global, and the study of global systems becomes the study of the community. For example: Drug abuse in the community should be studied in relation to its global context—namely, production, trade (smuggling), and consumption world-wide.

Present-day curriculum lags behind developments in the real world in terms of the emphasis on world order concerns. Today's schools seem to focus too often on descriptive models (what was and what is) —infrequently on predictive models (what will be).

Prescriptive models (what should be) are often regarded as futile speculation and thus unworthy of attention. Although we know of no studies in this area, we believe empirical proof may easily be obtained by an examination of the criteria on which schoolwork is evaluated. If our purpose is to prepare students for democratic social change, it is futile to concentrate on past and present *descriptive* models, or even upon *predictive* models of the future if these are not seen in the perspective of *prescriptive* models of what ought to be.

What, then, constitutes valid knowledge in the world order approach to education? Although the term *valid* is most commonly used in reference to empirical or statistical proof, here the concept is broadened by including the dictionary definition: "having a conclusion correctly derived from premises."

Valid knowledge, therefore, comprises both objective and subjective reality. Factual knowledge without regard to its value implications, and values without regard to factual knowledge should not be considered valid. This implies that regardless of whether one is dealing with descriptive, predictive, or prescriptive components, one must relate facts and values. Many schools still lack concern for prescription in their heavy reliance on factual and descriptive models.

Participation in democratic social change requires that an individual take *actions* for the purpose of influencing the movement from present reality to what *should* be (transition). Presumably, the skills required for such participation can best be obtained through actual practice in the social change process. But the question of whether a young person should actually participate in influencing the outcome of social issues has no easy answer.

In general, we would say that action is warranted at the point when the reflection process has given the individual a satisfactory grasp of the issue at stake. This will differ for every individual and for every issue.

A progressive involvement in action seems to be the best solution. In other words, we believe that fairly young children are sufficiently familiar with their own classroom environment to influence that environment by active participation in decision making that affects that environment. These initial types of experiences would set a precedent for managing future issues in terms of combining reflection and action.

The problem with many classroom environments is that even simple forms of action are not permitted, because, as Betty Reardon has pointed out in the 1973 ASCD yearbook, schools are "product-oriented in their processes, past and content-oriented in their teaching methods, and hierarchical and elitist in their organization." And as indicated earlier, the unspoken communication from the school is often antithetical to democratic social organization.

Another method for involving students in social change action would be to use simulation techniques to introduce future scenarios (which could be developed from the student's own vision of desirable future conditions). Valid knowledge about an issue would have to be obtained and appropriate action would have to be at least recommended or, even better, acted out. Such simulation materials are available and have proven to be very helpful instructional devices in creating an environment in which students at any age can go through all the steps involved in the world order methodology, including the action component.

The methodology outlined in this article is not complex or difficult to use. Ms. Reardon has noted that a precondition for its success, however, is that the school be "anti-elitist, person-oriented, inquiry-centered, process-concerned, and future-directed." Within such an environment, the student would be involved in learning processes of reflection and action.

The processes are characterized by (a) multidisciplinary study of overall global systems and community subsystems and the interrelationships among them, (b) concern for the future in light of past and present, (c) concern for clarification of values and their significance in arriving at descriptive, predictive, and prescriptive models of social reality, (d) concern for the discrepancies between these models, and (e) concern for transition or change strategies and skills.

We believe that an individual participating in processes of reflection and action within the environment described above would have arrived at greater *desire* for participation and *feeling* of effectiveness (efficacy) in meeting present and future challenges of social change. The school would then not only serve as a major source of information about past and present *structure* but be part of the dynamics of social change. We believe that this school would better serve the individual living in a fast-changing, information-rich, and action-poor society.

Instead of apathetic and cynical individuals subjected to "inevitable" forces of historical development, the world needs a generation of people who want and know how to establish world conditions conducive to the enhancement of positive world order values of social justice, economic welfare, eco-balance, peace, and participation. □

Business-Office Laboratory

LARRY L. SHINN, *chairman, Business Education Department, Lincoln High School, Cambridge City, Indiana.*

☐ **Why not—**

Offer high school business students the training needed for immediate, gainful employment upon graduation?

Train these students for the employment opportunities available in the community?

Get the business teacher out into the business world to see what is happening?

Organize school programs that duplicate an actual business establishment 100 percent in layout, equipment, and materials and that present the pressures, demands, and problems encountered by a typical employee?

About five years ago, business teachers across the nation were asking these questions—and others. In Indiana, they found one answer: the Intensive Business Office Laboratory curriculum. Through community surveys, advisory committee meetings, and visits to business offices, Indiana business teachers determined the following: (a) levels and titles of jobs available for high school graduates, (b) training standards required for these jobs, (c) demand for qualified employees, (d) deficiencies of office employees, (e) models and makes of business machines in use, (f) businessmen's recommendations for improving the quality and type of training for office employees, (g) employment testing procedures used in selecting new employees, and (h) in-service training programs in businesses for advancement of employees.

These teachers established prerequisite courses for each lane of entry into the Laboratory. They shifted all skill development courses, such as typewriting, shorthand, business machines, and bookkeeping, to the sophomore and junior levels, and they shifted the Intensive Business Office Laboratory to the senior level.

A state outline was developed for organizing classroom materials for the Laboratory, which, according to the Indiana plan, must be brought into the classroom from business offices. The term *work station* was used to identify materials related to a specific position within an office. Materials in the stations are samples of actual work completed by an employee in an office.

All work stations were organized as follows:

1. Student information: company history, organizational chart, office layout, job analysis, flow charts and explanations, vocabulary, and supply sheet.
2. Student instructions: specific job instructions with samples of completed business forms and daily assignments.
3. Answer key (completed samples of all work to be assigned) and evaluation sheet.

Laboratory programs are blocks of two or three consecutive hours of preparation. Three-hour programs have rotation periods of 10 days (30 hours), and two-hour ones have rotation periods of 15 days (30 hours). Students prepare letters of application for the work stations they want during each rotation period. If two or more apply for the same station, the teacher decides who works at that station and assigns the other(s) to another station(s).

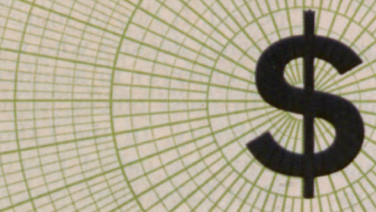
In most offices, some employees have supervisory authority. In the Laboratory, these supervisory students are called functional work station employees. Most Laboratory programs have functional work stations organized for office manager, secretary-receptionist, supplies clerk, and teacher-librarian aide clerk. Students are placed on these stations on the same rotation basis as on a work station.

The Laboratory is no longer a classroom but an office. Students move around the room to talk to other students and have pictures of boy or girl friends, flowers, and so on on their desks. Cokes, coffee, and snacks are permitted in the Laboratory just as in an office. Drapes and carpeting are found in the Laboratory, also.

The program offers the following advantages:

1. It provides the necessary preparation for students who want to work upon graduation.
2. Students who plan to continue their education are prepared for part-time employment while still in school.
3. Local businesses cooperate in the preparation of materials for work stations, and students identify with these companies.
4. Since seniors complete 14 or more rotations during the year, graduates can make better job selections than if they had not been exposed to this type of program.
5. Students learn to work as a team.
6. Business teachers cooperate within their department as well as throughout the state.
7. Indiana's state plan makes federal and state money available to help furnish and equip the Laboratory and to reimburse each school corporation for a portion of the Laboratory teacher's salary.
8. Public relations between the business community and the school improves.
9. Laboratory teachers feel that the block of time gives the students experience equivalent to that received by cooperative students who actually work in business offices in the community.
10. The teacher-student relationship becomes the employer-employee relationship. ☐

THE CASE FOR FULL STATE FUNDING



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Contemporary events have thrust the question of how schools should be financed into the forefront of present-day educational and political debate. And the proposition of full state funding—i.e., having the state assume virtually complete responsibility for financing public elementary and secondary education—is one that has attracted growing interest. This article will present arguments in favor of this proposal.

Current problems in school finance are a result of the convergence of three major trends: (a) growth in expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools, (b) dissatisfaction with the local property tax as a means of financing education, and (c) continuing concern for equality of educational opportunity as reflected in the recent decisions where courts have declared that the level of educational spending must be a function of the wealth of the entire state rather than being determined primarily by the wealth of an individual school district. Convergence of these three trends has generated considerable dissatisfaction with current methods of financing education and has stimulated a search for other alternatives better suited to meet present-day needs. Full state funding is one alternative.

A prime argument for full state funding is that it will result in greater equalization of educational opportunity. For years American educators have paid lip service to the ideal of achieving equal educational opportunity, while the gap between spending levels of rich and poor districts has continued to widen. The present disparities in spending among rich and poor school districts can no longer be tolerated.

Evidence indicates that the gap between the level of spending in rich districts and poor districts increases rather than decreases over time under most

state support programs which are supposed to provide "equalization." While the relationship between expenditure level and educational quality is not perfect, common sense and the results of research indicate that a positive relationship does exist. Although money alone may not be sufficient to guarantee educational quality, it is certainly necessary.

Of course, mere adoption of full state funding would not automatically increase equality of educational opportunity within a state. A successful effort to raise the expenditure level in districts currently at the low end of the expenditure continuum would also be necessary. The temptation to reduce the level of spending of districts currently at the high end must be resisted.

Emphasis must be placed upon raising the quality of educational opportunity in low spending districts—not in reducing the quality of educational opportunity in high spending districts. There should be no abrupt change in spending levels, for it is unlikely that low spending districts would be able to make wise use of sudden large amounts of additional revenue.

A systematic effort to raise the level of expenditure in low spending districts should be accompanied by a careful monitoring by the state education agency to ensure the wise use of additional funds. While such monitoring admittedly will infringe on local decision-making prerogatives, it undoubtedly will be necessary in order to assure state policymakers that any additional funds are being used efficiently and effectively to improve the educational opportunities of pupils.

A second reason for advocating full state funding as a solution to current educational financing problems is the likelihood that it will result in greater equity for taxpayers, especially if adoption of such a program is tied to property tax relief. It is generally recognized that property ownership does not always accurately reflect taxpaying ability and that the property tax is especially burdensome for the elderly and members of low income groups.

The extent to which full state funding can be accomplished within a state's existing tax structure is an important consideration. Few legislators would support adoption of a full state funding plan that required substantial increases in existing tax rates or imposition of new taxes. Thus, complete abandonment of the property tax as a source of revenue for education is out of the question in most states.

Adoption of a *statewide* property tax for school support would, however, greatly reduce the present variation in tax rates among districts and should also lead to improved administration of the property tax. In most states administration of local property taxes leaves much to be desired and shifting responsibility for administration of the property tax to state government ought to result in more accurate assessment of property and greater equity for taxpayers.

Full state funding also would modernize the tax base for support of public elementary and secondary schools. The property tax is poorly related both to the ability to pay taxes and to benefits received from tax-supported services, at least insofar as the benefits of education are concerned. It also is not very responsive to changes in economic conditions. Full state funding undoubtedly would result in greater reliance on revenue from state sales and income taxes, which are more productive and less regressive than local property taxes.

Yet another benefit of full state funding would be a reduction in interdistrict competition. Our present decentralized system of financing education often encourages intense competition between school districts. The effect of this competition is particularly evident when one examines expenditure patterns of the wealthiest school districts. Districts able to raise large amounts of local revenue while maintaining a relatively low local tax rate have an unfair advantage in competing for teachers and other employees. Wealthy districts can offer higher salaries, smaller classes, and a wider range of fringe benefits for employees while still maintaining relatively low tax rates for citizens.

With the advent of local collective bargaining, teacher organizations have used strategies in negotiation that have resulted in substantial increases in salary and fringe benefits in relatively wealthy districts. Success in a few districts gave leverage for use in bargaining with other districts. Many state policymakers would be reluctant to adopt a full state funding program unless they could be guaranteed some control over teacher salary schedules.

Development of more efficient systems for delivering educational services to pupils would follow the adoption of a full state funding program. The existing pattern of school district organization in many states represents a very inefficient approach to the delivery of educational services. Many school districts are too small to achieve significant economies and are able to provide educational programs of only marginal quality—and these at a very high cost per pupil.

Full state funding undoubtedly would result in elimination of school districts unable to offer adequate educational programs at reasonable cost. For one reason, the state would be unlikely to continue to support school districts of this type. A second reason would be the inability of such districts to provide educational programs adequate to meet the needs of students, thus leading to increasing pressure from students and parents for reorganization or consolidation.

Alternative arrangements that would more efficiently provide educational services for certain types of pupils could be developed more easily under full state funding. In sparsely populated areas, for example, residential schools for deaf or blind students may be

the most efficient way to deliver needed educational services. For other students in other situations, an intermediate educational agency or a consortium of local school districts may be the most efficient way. With a full state funding program in existence, resistance to school district reorganization is less likely, since tax advantages presently enjoyed by districts that are enclaves of high value property would no longer exist.

The concept of local control of education is deeply rooted in the American educational tradition, especially in those states that followed the early New England pattern of educational organization. Ability to respond appropriately to local preferences is a strength of American education and is in keeping with our economic traditions. Full state funding of education is not incompatible with retention of substantial control over significant educational decisions at the local school level.

Local control of education will remain a myth as long as there are wide disparities among the state's school districts in the amount of revenue available per pupil. The range of decisions available to local boards of education and school administrators is directly related to the resources to which they have access. If a local school district has a very small property tax base supporting each pupil, its range of alternatives for educational programming is much more restricted than that of a district where the property tax base per pupil is very large.

Adoption of full state funding would, in fact, strengthen local control of education by giving local educational decision makers access to the fiscal resources needed to provide adequate educational programs for all children. With full state funding, local policymakers could turn full attention to determining how best to use resources available to them rather than spending the bulk of their time worrying about how to obtain the needed revenue.

In summary, adoption of full state funding will produce greater equalization of educational opportunity for children, provide greater equity for the taxpayers who pay the bill for public education, reduce dysfunctional interdistrict competition for teachers and other resources, result in more efficient organizational arrangements for delivering educational services to pupils, and strengthen local control of education by freeing local decision makers from the problems of raising revenue so that they can give their full attention to determining how best to use the resources made available to them. □

THE LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT'S ROLE

HARVEY E. BRAZER, *professor of economics, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.*

The major premise on which an important fiscal role for local school districts must rest is that neighborhoods and whole communities, as well as individuals, differ in their tastes with regard to elementary and secondary education and in their perceptions of the need for them. Acceptance of this premise depends in substantial measure on acceptance of the value judgment that the economy functions in order to satisfy the preferences of individuals.

Under existing arrangements for financing of the public schools, however, giving local districts a choice of levels of support for education has resulted in extremely wide differences in dollars spent per pupil. These differences reflect more than variety in tastes or preferences. They stem in large part from differences among school districts in the value of taxable wealth, coupled with systems of state aid that fall far short of equalizing fiscal capacity. Under these circumstances real options to choose among levels of support for education are available only to the richer communities. Frequently, districts that are poorly endowed with taxable property are unable to command adequate resources for education even when they are willing to levy a very high tax rate.

The reaction of some courts, students of educational finance, legislators, governors, and administrators has been to condemn the present arrangements for financing education and to opt for centralized state finance, all in pursuit of "equality." They neglect the fact, however, that the frustration of local preferences is likely to lead those who are blocked in their effort to allocate more funds to public education to seek the quality of education they want, and are willing to pay for, in the private sector. The ultimate outcome, therefore, may well be equal expenditure per pupil in the *public schools*, but less equality in *all* elementary and secondary education, public and private combined.

Thus we may face something of a dilemma. Equal educational opportunity is undoubtedly incompatible with existing systems of school finance. But equality

achieved through fiscal centralization at the state level entails foregoing satisfaction of local preferences in the public sector.

What is wanted, therefore, at one and the same time, is a means of ensuring that at least a minimally acceptable level of resources per school child will be available everywhere, irrespective of taxable wealth, while local districts retain (or obtain, in the case of poor districts) the option to go beyond state standards.

There is a simple means of reconciling the conflict between these goals and attaining both of them. It involves the logical extension of the principle of percentage equalization, a key element in the foundation program concept of joint state-local financing of the public schools. Through the application of a simple aid formula, a state can assure local school districts that they will all realize the same number of dollars per school child for each mill (one dollar per $1,000 of taxable value in their tax rates. This result is obtained by establishing a "state aid ratio" for each district (that is, the number of dollars to be supplied by the state for each dollar raised in local school taxes).

The ratio is a function of taxable value per school child. Suppose, for example, that we want to obtain state aid ratios that will ensure to each district revenues of $50 per child for each mill in its school tax levy. If one mill is to produce $50 per child, then a district in which taxable value per pupil equals $50,000 will achieve that result by itself (.001 × $50,000 = $50). Consequently, the formula that will produce the state aid ratio for any given district is $\frac{\$50,000}{V} - 1$, where V is the taxable value per pupil in the district.

To illustrate the way in which the formula would work, suppose that district A is a "poor" district, with taxable value per pupil of $10,000, while district B has $40,000 per pupil. For A the state aid ratio is $\frac{\$50,000}{\$10,000} - 1 = 4$; while for B, it is $\frac{\$50,000}{\$40,000} - 1 = .25$. Thus for each mill that A levies, it realizes $10 per pupil (.001 × $10,000); and the yield per mill for B is $40 per pupil (.001 × $40,000). In the case of A, the state aid ratio is 4, so that total yield per mill levied in property tax plus state aid becomes $10 plus 4 x $10, or $50 per child. For B, the local property tax produces $40 and the state aid ratio of .25 adds $10, for a total that again equals $50.

This same result will obtain for all districts, even the very rich districts with more than $50,000 per pupil in taxable value. For these districts state aid is simply negative. That is, a district with $75,000 in per pupil taxable value, for example, would have a state aid ratio of $\frac{\$50,000}{\$75,000} - 1$, or − .33. In this case the district would realize $75 per child per mill but would be required to *pay* $25 of that amount to the state while retaining $50.

Percentage equalization, therefore, is capable of providing equalization among school districts in the revenue to be realized per pupil, irrespective of differences among districts in taxable wealth when equal tax efforts are forthcoming.

It may be regarded as desirable to safeguard the interests of all children by requiring that all districts must, as a condition of participation in the system, levy school taxes at a rate sufficient to finance a minimally adequate education. If it is believed, say, that $1,000 per pupil is needed for this purpose, then the minimum levy must be set at 20 mills—assuming a guarantee of $50 per mill per child.

This system of state aid would make the option to levy higher taxes in response to local preferences a meaningful one for all districts, rich or poor. Thus it would achieve equity in the sense that the level of funds available for education would no longer depend upon the taxable wealth that happens to exist in one district relative to another. Each mill in the local tax rate would yield the same per pupil amount of revenue throughout the state. And neither households nor industry would any longer be inspired to make decisions with respect to location on the basis of the productivity of local school taxes.

Moreover, the numbers used here are only illustrative. The proposed system is entirely flexible and is compatible with virtually any degree of relative reliance on local property versus state tax sources. For example, setting the "key" taxable value per pupil

figure at $100,000 rather than $50,000 would produce higher state aid ratios and far less reliance on the property tax.

If it is believed desirable to take into account various "need" factors, this can be done simply by multiplying the first term in the formula by the appropriate need index. For example, suppose that the key taxable value is $50,000 per pupil and district A's taxable value is $10,000, while the need index is 2. The state aid ratio would then be $\left(\frac{\$50{,}000}{\$10{,}000} \times 2\right) - 1 = 9$, rather than 4 as arrived at without this adjustment.

Similarly, if one wished to take into account the relative level of family income in the district, he could accomplish this simply by multiplying the district's taxable value per pupil by the ratio of income in the district to median family income in the state as a whole. Then, the higher the district's income, other things equal, the lower its state aid ratio, and vice versa.

Under the suggested formula, however, there is no a priori reason to believe that rich districts will outspend poor districts, even in the absence of adjustments for need or income. It must be kept in mind that districts with little taxable wealth will be getting their school revenue dollars at a low "price" to themselves, in the sense that they will receive several dollars from the state for each dollar in tax paid locally. By the same token, taxpayers in rich districts will pay a high price for education dollars. Thus even if rich people live in districts with high taxable wealth and poor people in districts with low wealth, which need not, of course, necessarily be the case, high incomes may be offset by high "prices" and low incomes by low "prices."

Finally, it may be argued that any plan for financing elementary and secondary education that continues reliance on the property tax is objectionable because of the inequities and distortions associated with that tax. Clearly, there is merit in this position. But abandonment or sharp reduction in the property tax would bring the inequities of windfall gains accruing to present property owners; the property tax may be properly viewed in part as an offset to the special privileges afforded to homeowners under our income tax system; and the worst features of the property tax may be remedied by appropriate measures.

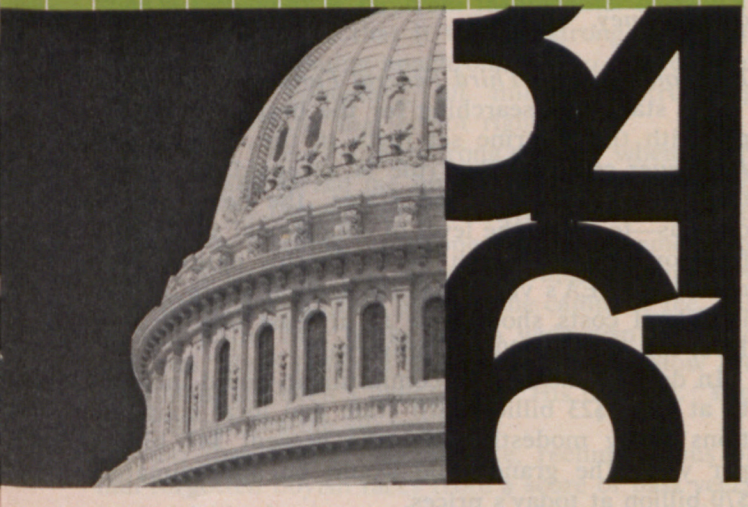
"Circuit breaker" legislation, under which the state refunds property taxes paid in excess of some stipulated fraction of income, is capable of relieving the hardships suffered by retired homeowners and, when extended to all taxpayers, can remove most of the regressivity in the property tax. If, in addition, means can be found to achieve substantial improvement in assessment practices, the property tax, when combined with state aid based on percentage equalization, can properly be expected to continue to provide a major share of the funds needed to support the public schools. □

Because of recent controversies over taxation and the value of school spending, the question of general federal aid is now under close scrutiny by local and state governments, Congress, and the courts. The *Serrano* decision in California held that the state's system of financing of public schools based primarily on local property taxes violates the Equal Protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. The *Rodriguez* case, now pending before the U.S. Supreme Court, is based on a similar argument—that unequal educational opportunity arising from dependence primarily on local wealth constitutes a violation of the Equal Protection clause.

The *Rodriguez* brief contends that most educational aid formulas are archaic vestiges of the first decades of the century, when some of the nation's central cites were "wealthy" in the limited sense that they reported above average assessed valuation per student, and when state aid was designed to reduce disparities between "rich" central cities and outlying areas. These formulas remain in operation although the conditions for which they were designed no longer exist.

Obviously, the *Rodriguez* decision could have profound and long-range impact on patterns of school finance. Even though those resources are redistributed, the problem of inadequate state and local resources

THE CASE FOR MORE FEDERAL FUNDING



will remain. Even if the Court reverses the *Rodriguez* decision, the conscience of the nation has been aroused. State legislatures will be addressing themselves to the problem of inequity in school spending among school districts in their states.

A recent NEA study found that, in response to fiscal pressure, many school districts are being forced to curtail staff and reduce educational services, thus reversing the strenuous efforts of the past decade to improve education. Federal assistance, widely publicized as it is, still provides only eight cents of the public school dollar. The following table, from NEA Research's *Estimates of School Statistics, 1972-73,* illustrates the tremendous burdens borne by state and local governments in raising school funds at a time when public demands on schools are escalating and inflation continues to shrink the education dollar.

School year	Percent of school revenue derived from: Federal sources	State sources	Local and other sources
1962-63	3.6*	39.3*	57.1*
1963-64	4.4	39.3	56.4
1964-65	3.8*	39.7*	56.5*
1965-66	7.9	39.1	53.0
1966-67	7.9*	39.1*	53.0*
1967-68	8.8	38.5	52.7

1968-69	7.4*	40.0*	52.6*
1969-70	8.0	39.9	52.1
1970-71	7.2*	40.0*	52.8*
1971-72	8.0*	40.2*	51.8*
1972-73	7.8*	41.0*	51.2*

*NEA Research estimates

Less than two cents of every dollar for fiscal 1974 will go to education if the President's budget is approved by Congress. (See Chart on page 36). Congress has passed increasingly larger amounts of federal assistance within recent years, but the percentages have remained pretty much the same, and the goal of equal access to quality education seems as far off as ever. It seems obvious, in today's heated political climate, that the federal commitment to education will not be substantially increased until the people—teachers and the public—convey forcefully and convincingly to Congress the need for more federal aid.

Guaranteeing Educational Quality

If each child is to achieve his full potential, he must be guaranteed the opportunity for an education that develops him as an individual regardless of sex, race, religion, or socioeconomic background.

If the national commitment for full educational opportunity is to be met, the schools must provide programs to help *each child*—

Acquire the fundamental skills of oral and written communication and mathematics and the language of science, so he has a chance to function in our society.

Further develop the ability to think and evaluate, so he will continue to learn in a changing society.

Have continuous opportunity for career development, so he is prepared for gainful employment and self-fulfillment.

Extend his understanding and respect for human relationships and values, so he may live in a society that will function ethically.

Acquire an understanding of the structure of society, past and present, so he may participate as an effective citizen.

Acquire knowledge and appreciation for the arts and humanities, so he may develop as a person.

Acquire an understanding of personal health and his environment, so he may continue to grow physically.

The schools must have a basic educational and instructional program (commonly referred to as elementary, junior high, and senior high) which has as its major thrusts: academic development, career readiness development, human development, societal development, aesthetic development, and physical development.

As children progress successfully through an educa-

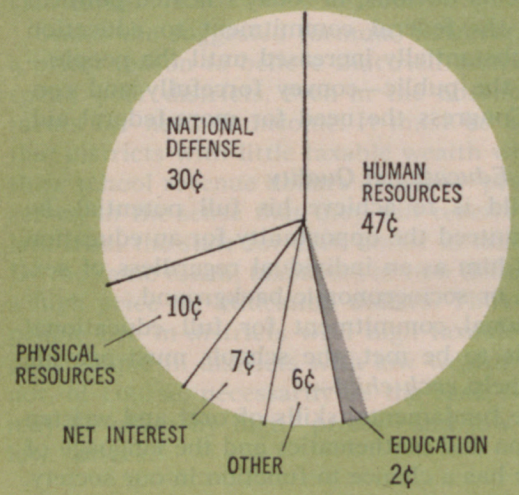
tional program and as they grow older, their interests and capabilities become more varied and their individual needs require a greater variety of instructional offerings.

When courses, such as advanced mathematics, are provided because of the needs or wishes of a few pupils, smaller class sizes may be necessary. When some pupils need advanced art courses, expensive specialized equipment may have to be purchased and maintained.

As courses become more specialized, teachers with advanced preparation are required. Hence, it costs more to educate a child in junior high school than it did when he was in grade school. Similarly, senior high school education is more expensive than junior high.

EDUCATION'S 2¢ FOR F.Y. 1974

The U.S. Budget Dollar F.Y. 1974 Estimate
Where it goes . . .



The 47 cents for human resources includes 2 cents for education at all levels, buried deep among such other items as social security, health, welfare, veterans' benefits and services, and manpower.

From *Budget Highlights F.Y. 1974* (Office of Management and Budget). Each cent represents about $2,687,000,000.

However, many educators have suggested that a reverse order of funding should prevail: that the heaviest investment of funds should be made in the years of early childhood education. The observation serves to underscore the need for additional funding of enriched programs in early childhood and elementary education.

We know from experience that there are urgent needs which the public schools must meet.

- Research shows that all children profit from pre-first-grade school experiences; therefore, *early childhood* (kindergarten and prekindergarten) programs should be universal.
- The regular education program may not provide children with all the necessary preparation for gainful employment; therefore, *vocational* programs should be strengthened to provide for economic needs.
- Some children are unable to succeed because of emotional, mental, or physical disabilities; therefore, *special education* programs must be provided.
- Some children and adults need or want more opportunities than are provided in the regular school year; therefore, *summer school* and *adult education* programs should be available to all who are interested.
- Some children enter school poorly prepared to learn because of economically and educationally deprived family backgrounds; therefore, *enriched educational programs* for these children are essential.

Special programs such as these should be added to the basic educational program. Their specific nature often requires smaller classes, teachers and consultants with specialized or advanced training, and more sophisticated facilities and equipment. *All of this costs money.*

The Solution: One-Third Federal Funding

The states are searching for the best way to comply with the doctrine set forth in the *Serrano* and *Rodriguez* cases. If this rule is accepted for education spending within the states, the next step is obvious—to make the level of educational spending a function of the wealth of the entire nation. This means, in NEA's view, that the federal share of public school costs should rise to at least one-third by 1976, the nation's 200th anniversary.

In dollars, the federal commitment would increase to at least $23 billion with state and local contributions rising modestly from the present $47 billion per year. The grand total would be approximately $70 billion at today's prices.

The first priority for federal spending would be distribution to the states to compensate for the inability of low-income states to raise the amount necessary to provide a good basic education—at least $800 per child, based on the criteria stated above. This equalization cost would be a little over $3 billion. The remainder of the federal funds would be allotted among the states on the basis of the numbers of pupils enrolled and the cost per student of the various additional programs and services needed to provide the necessary enrichment of basic services.

The Congress is receptive to increasing federal assistance to education, but it needs hard facts from each state and locality to support the massive appropriations we are requesting. General statements of support will help little. A big political job is required in which the teaching profession leads the effort, develops community support through effective expression of needs, and gives proof that federal dollars actually make a difference in the quality of American education.

Need help? NEA Government Relations consultants in Washington and in the regional offices will gladly offer their services as this monumental task is undertaken.

—NEA Government Relations.

You May Not Agree, but . . .

Memorization Has Its Place

says **JEAN MIZER TODHUNTER,** *education writer; former teacher and guidance counselor. Mrs. Todhunter won first prize in the first Teachers' Writing Competition with her story, "Cipher in the Snow" (November 1964 issue of the* NEA Journal*).*

□ **I believe that all students, even high school students,** should have occasional opportunities to memorize pieces of fine literature. Now, I well realize that such a viewpoint is far from fashionable. In fact, it is so unfashionable that it takes a strong person to throw such a seeming anachronism into the teeth of sharp young educators, all militantly struggling against everything that is not right on.

However, I became that strong one day when a surprise meeting jarred me into realizing that I still do believe in the old right-off idea of memorization as an adjunct to learning. It happened one summer day when a smartly turned out forest ranger stopped by our wilderness camp to pick up the campsite fee. His serious young face broke into a wide grin when he saw me. "Hey! Teach! I mean—Miss Mizer. How *are* you? Man! It's been a long time—" His face fell. "You don't remember me, do you?"

I did that frantic mental take, reeling dozens of half-forgotten boyish faces from a score of past years in vanished schoolrooms before my inner eye. I didn't have a glimmer.

Suddenly he flung his green ranger's hat on the picnic table and leaped up on a nearby stump. "I come to bury Caesar, not to praise him," he declaimed. Then he sobered and said seriously, out into the sky and clouds and the pines moving solemnly with the warm breeze:

"There is a tide in the affairs of men
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune;
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries."

He climbed from the stump. "Remember?" he asked me. "Remember us big old dumb characters trailing around Room 3B in torn sheets, battling with yardsticks, and shouting out that Shakespeare stuff you made us learn?"

I remembered then a roomful of resentful boys who were big, all right, but not one bit "dumb." They were number-, science-, and muscle-oriented kids who, individually and collectively, hated English with a concentrated passion. The principal had given them to me with a wry grin and a left-handed compliment, and I did everything in my bag of tricks to interest those boys. I'd have tap-danced on my desk while whistling "Tea for Two" if I could have held their attention.

I barely recalled the fling at *Julius Caesar,* one of my "move-and-do" learning correlations no doubt, but tall, skinny, sleepy-eyed Bill Worth, third row, second seat, remembered. He and I sat there in the woods and talked through much of the afternoon. He told me about the miserable time he had had in a miserable war.

"I was in 'Nam for a hundred years," he said somberly. "I was there so long and got so loused up inside that I finally couldn't remember what the houses on our block had looked like or sometimes what my mother's face looked like. You think about funny things when you're all messed up and mad and either dead bored or funkin' scared. I don't know why, but I thought a lot about that Caesar stuff. I used to say over and over, 'Cowards die many times before their deaths; the valiant never taste of death but once.' Things like that."

Things like that. That day I came to realize that throwing out all the old educational procedures to make room for the new causes a good many babies to be tossed out with the bath water. No sensible teacher would contend that the old rote memorization, the meaningless parroting back of meaningless gunk, has the slightest value. But to make a great idea, a great line, a part of yourself, that is a highly different thing.

Critics decry a loss of values in our young people, a shoddy lack of appreciation of the worth of their own lives and their own nation. How can young people appreciate a quality they never really knew and have no way to comprehend? A quick reading of "The Gettysburg Address" means little more than a momentary intellectual comprehension of a few phrases made moth-eaten by unassociated, often flippant, repetition. "The Gettysburg Address" learned and repeated out loud in one's own voice brings a sense of Lincoln's deep compassion for the suffering of all the American people and his devotion to a way of life better than any people striving to live together have ever found.

A memorized passage, prose or poetry, can be a matter of enjoying a good time. The repetition of someone else's words allows any child a chance to get out of his own skin and revel a bit in the catharsis of play acting. He may stumble and fumble over the lines, but there's satisfaction in the doing. There's a comfortable lack of mental stress to memorization, too. It is one activity that doesn't require mental gymnastics, no strained logic, no performance in calculation, just a learning of words that may make us better than we are, expression on a mental level far enough above us to challenge growth.

Basically, however, the vital potential worth of

memorization of prose and poetry is far greater than incidental learning and the incidental joy of the performing. The real value is that some of the words remain with the learner. The process is rather the reverse of Disraeli's molasses story in which he pointed out that communication is too often like pouring molasses. The pourer finds the thick liquid easy enough to pour but he can't always judge how much molasses sticks in the jug. In the art of using memorization as a learning tool, when the technique *is* an art of well-chosen selections presented in an atmosphere of deep significance or dynamic fun, the value lies in how much molasses does stick in the jug.

Great ideas, great concepts, great words can be understood and used as intellectual tools by any competent student reader, but their in-depth use in the student's life pattern is far more possible through their memorization, which enables the learning to become a part of his associative thought pattern and, sometimes, a part of his beliefs.

You may not agree that memorization is still a valid learning technique, but a boy who thought he hated English yet withstood the trauma of war better because some Shakespearean words lived inside him convinced me that the value of memorization is no more dead than is the study of great, living literature. □

◆ *Readers are invited to react to this article.*

Faculty Organization—Response to the Academic Assembly Line

MARK SCHULMAN, *director, Learning Resources Center, Mount Vernon College, Washington, DC; and* **DAVID HAKKEN**, *research consultant, National Panel on High Schools and Adolescent Education, U.S. Office of Education.*

□ **Organization, as a collective force to focus attention** on needed reforms, is coming to higher education. Just as other groups have united around issues which affect their lives as working people, so professors are also beginning to organize.

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of organization in higher education is not that it is occurring now but that it took so long to get started. Higher education organization is now at the point where K-12 organization was nearly 10 years ago and, compared to the cohesion of many K-12 teachers, professors are a disorganized lot.

Teacher organization at all levels of education has been held back in the United States by the consciousness of the "teaching class," members of which maintain that teachers are professionals, not laborers; by this line of reasoning, teacher bargaining organizations were once considered unprofessional.

This consciousness was particularly strong in higher education where professors might gather in formal societies and associations to examine their disciplines in abstract discussions and still remain professional. At such scholarly convocations, they were aware of the informal workplace orientation outside the formal sessions. But job placement and job advancement activities that went on informally at professional association conventions allowed professors to engage (albeit superficially) in what might be called union work without acknowledging it (even to themselves).

K-12 teachers were less susceptible to the professional mystique. Thus, when they began to view their situation as being analogous to that of other sectors of the working class, they chose the traditional tool of workers—collective organization—to better their situation. On the other hand, higher education professors, whose prestige depends upon their accomplishments within scholarly fields, chose to ignore the working class aspects of their jobs.

To be sure, the higher education professor does enjoy some of the benefits and privileges of a professional elite. But the point is that his self-concept of teacher as professional, encouraged by college administrators, was the key to maintaining campus passivity. That self-concept nurtured isolation and intergroup antagonism, which hampered any possibility of cohesion in and collective action by an entire higher education faculty.

But just as collective organization became the solution to some of the problems of K-12 teachers, so this concept is gradually working itself into the higher education professor's self-concept. As it does, unions and other forms of organization grow on campus, and the notion of the professor as a professional, though not swept aside, is drastically modified to include collective struggle around workplace issues as acceptable professional activity.

Examination of the forces which precipitated the organization of K-12 teachers helps to explain the recent steps toward organization of higher education faculty. New problems and new social movements that

Teachers Who Individualize

MARCIA McBEATH, *school psychologist, Shoreline public schools, Seattle, and lecturer, University of Washington, Seattle.*

□ **When one of my sons was in the eighth grade, he** tried out for the wrestling team. Since I knew nothing about the sport other than what I had seen on TV, I said, "Mike, you'll get mashed."

"You don't understand, Mom," he patiently explained. "I weigh 98 pounds, so I'll wrestle guys who weigh between 96 and 103 pounds. If I weighed 88 pounds, I'd be in the 82- to 89-weight class. Everyone wrestles against someone close to his own weight."

He made the team, and I began attending the matches. I discovered something interesting: When the smallest member of the team pins someone in his weight class, he earns just as many points as when the biggest wrestler does.

Then I wondered how the smallest member would look wrestling the biggest one and took some pictures of a 76 pounder wrestling with a 180 pounder. Of course, they looked ridiculous.

When teachers see those photographs, they always laugh. But often these are the same teachers who have the student reading at third grade level and the one reading at eleventh grade level "wrestling" with the same sixth grade social studies book.

For years teachers (not all, but some) have tried to mold the child to fit the school. The alternative is to mold the program to fit the child—to individualize to meet his needs. To this suggestion, teachers usually respond, "How can I possibly individualize with 35 children in my class?"

Teachers can't really individualize instruction on their own. They need help from many sources—from consultants who can teach them techniques of individualizing to assistants who can aid them in working with children in the classroom. Some schools, aware of this need, are providing aides, but where this is not possible, volunteers are often available. Junior and senior high school students and even upper elementary students can be helpful. And they do not have to be the best students. Sometimes someone who has "been there himself" can motivate a difficult-to-reach pupil. Parents, senior citizens, and other community volunteers are often willing to help, too.

Teachers who want to individualize also need the support of the building principal, who can often provide ideas from his own experience, and the school librarian, who can supply materials and work with individual students.

Teachers may also wish to help their local association establish a program that would first identify needs for K-12 and then set goals in terms of these needs and determine methods for achieving them.

In addition, teachers must have a variety of materials available, including tape recorders, listening posts, teaching machines, slide and filmstrip projectors, and programmed materials. Books and other teaching aids should be kept in a central location, either within each school or each district.

The quality of the materials, however, is another story. Pupils who read below grade level need readers suited to their age and interest. An eighth grader who reads at first grade level doesn't get excited about "See Dick run." Teachers who individualize must also have adequate time to plan and prepare lessons. To those who say, "I can't take the time to individualize," the reply must be, "You can't take the time not to." Teaching addition of fractions by explaining the material five times—just for the sake of the slowest third of the class—takes as much time as giving the group a diagnostic test, teaching the information to small groups, and evaluating pupil progress frequently.

Some teachers have been individualizing for years. One of my children's favorite teachers had a group of eight third graders who could spell all the words in their speller. She had them bring three new words to their group each week, words that became the spelling lesson for all of them. Of course, the children tried to outdo each other with difficult words, but they did learn to spell and use them. Spelling became a challenge rather than a bore.

Special education teachers are often great individualizers. Usually their pupils span a greater range in age and abilities than students in regular classes, so these teachers soon find out that they need to keep each child occupied at his own level of ability.

In regular classrooms, some teachers find themselves with 48 students, few supplies, and no extra help. These are not the teachers to whom I am addressing myself. They are in an intolerable situation. But the rest can begin to individualize—if only on a small scale. □

You May Not Agree, but...

Teachers Can Make Changes

says **THOMAS D. GILLETT,** *English teacher, East High School, Rochester, New York.*

☐ **The unspoken comment in the mind of every teach-**er who reads articles in education journals is, "It works for him in his situation, but that doesn't mean it will work for me." I have no intention of offering another in the endless series of "Whizbang Programs" designed to increase reading levels of all students by eight (yes, eight!) grades or to induce all seventh graders to read Proust. But I am committed to the proposition that education needs change, and I say that we teachers must initiate reform or expect to have some outside agent impose it.

Several general assumptions form a firm foundation for educational change:

1. "Sacred cows make awfully good hamburger." (I give credit for this remark to a noted educator who was speaking "off the record.")

For too long, tradition has been used as a rationale for most of what goes on in schools. It dictates everything from where seniors sit in the auditorium to when a student must read Poe's "The Tell-Tale Heart." I do not attack traditions indiscriminately. In any school, however, any practice or policy that cannot be defended for its educational advantages alone should be closely examined.

2. The teacher is the second most important element in the process of education. (If you need to ask what is *most* important, you may find your talents better suited to working in a turnpike toll booth.) At this time, the teacher is the center of the learning situation —in some cases, the dead center. Teachers have power because they control, in a sense, the most important element of the system—the students. Much of the frustration in our schools results from a sad lack of cooperation between teachers and students. If these two groups could work in concert, any obstacle to educational change would be overcome.

3. We're doing more things wrong than we're doing right. This assumption may or may not be true, but it is widely accepted in our society. The absentee rate and the dropout rate lend credence to the claim. The fact that many persons agree our schools are ineffective indicates change is required. It seems easy to find something to attack in our schools and difficult to point out more than a few isolated successes.

4. Successful reform paves the way for additional changes. This assumption is probably the least likely of all to be disputed. In a plan for change, it is essential to define limits and to set immediate objectives. This assumption also affirms that any method, system, practice, or belief developed is itself subject to the same scrutiny which led to its inception. My aim is to establish a constant and continuing pattern of examination, evaluation, and implementation for all schools. Until this is done, the education system will be short-changing someone.

In general terms, then, it is established that change is both necessary and desirable. I look to the teacher to determine what changes are needed and to direct the efforts to implement those changes. Here is one way to do it:

• *Determine what needs to be done.* Rely on your students to let you know the specifics. Trust yourself and your fellow teachers; work to expand those practices and situations which constitute the best part of your personal teaching program. In other words, when you stumble onto something that works, do all you can to enlarge its practice—both in your classroom and outside it. In some cases, improvements can be made that either economize or at least do not increase spending. Make money a consideration in your plan, but not the only consideration.

• *Identify the groups or individuals who will support the change.* Make a realistic list of these helpers —including the elements that will lend moral support.

If the proposal can be justified educationally and if you can point to better results in the classroom, then students and parents alike can be expected to lend their support. I say "can be expected" with the implied qualification "if they trust you." Please excuse the digression into idealism, but it is essential to this concept of trust. If a teacher has what I call a "pure motive," he or she will be trusted. The motive involves being devoted and dedicated to the value of each individual student.

• *Identify those resistant to change.* Make every attempt to appraise the strength of the resistance accurately. An error in judgment at this stage can cripple future plans for change.

• *Examine existing avenues for implementing change.* This step often involves plugging in to an organization or group within the school framework. Usually groups such as the student government, the professional association, or the PTA serve this function. Use an authoritative group to start a proposal through the established channels of change. Follow all the rules at this stage; if you find it necessary to resort to other means, documented legal attempts to change will provide weighty justification.

• *Resort to other effective measures.* If you say that's vague, you're right. This step involves bringing pressure to bear upon the specific hindering element. It should be determined among those who are supporting the change what constitutes the correct type and amount of pressure.

In the process of instituting a series of changes, it is a good idea to start small and work up to big efforts. Small successes lead to big successes—I hope.

Because many teachers seem to be crying for specific things to do that reflect change, I have included a brief list of changes any teacher can make. These changes are important; they make it possible for teachers to break out of the stereotypes that oppress them. In the process of altering the way that others perceive us, we necessarily alter the way that we perceive ourselves. Do as many of the following as you dare:

• Stop coming to school in a "teacher's uniform." Be comfortable.

• Post articles on the bulletin board in the faculty room about good things in education and bad things in your school.

• When feasible, live in the school district where you teach.

• Find out when your chief administrator's birthday is and send a card. Sign only your first name.

• Type up observations and recommendations about the workings of the school and send a carbon copy to your principal. (If he asks who got the first copy, laugh loudly.)

• Smile a lot.

• Invite your principal to your classroom until he shows up; if he doesn't make any comments, solicit them. Invite him back often.

• Attend student functions when your presence is not required.

• Work with a group in an extracurricular activity.

• When one of your "bad" students does something good, call his home and tell his parents about it. Refuse to call parents to report misbehavior.

• Have parent conferences that are not "necessary."

• Let some students paint your room a bright color.

• Offer to teach a class on Saturday. If anyone comes, you're doing something right.

• Write a comprehensive autobiography and give a copy to all your students.

• Eat student food in the student cafeteria. Bring a friend.

• Serve toast and doughnuts to your earliest class.

• See how long you can go without giving a test.

• Try to get other teachers to do any of the above.□

Judging the Teacher

Should the teacher in an open classroom be evaluated by the same procedures as the teacher in a traditional one?

MINNIE W. KOBLITZ, *fourth grade teacher, Greenacres Elementary School, Scarsdale, New York; vice-chairman, NEA Council on Instruction and Professional Development; Chairman, NEA Task Force on Practitioner Involvement in Teacher Education.*

☐ **The open classroom is the new panacea for many** educators. To qualify as "open," a classroom must have the following characteristics:

- Children participate in deciding what they want to learn.
- The classroom is rich in resources, such as audio-

visual equipment, reading materials, math games, language laboratories, and science projects.

• The teacher serves as a manager, planner, supplier of materials, arbitrator of ideas, innovator, reactor, communicator of skills and attitudes, and motivator of all children!

How will the teacher in the open classroom be judged? Will standard achievement test scores and state-mandated pupil achievement records be used to determine the teacher's success? How will those responsible decide that learning is taking place in the classroom? Should the teacher in an open classroom be evaluated by the same procedures as the teacher in a traditional one?

To clarify some answers to these questions, I interviewed a husband and wife, each of whom have taught for nine years. She has an open classroom of 25 second graders. Her husband has 27 fifth graders in his traditional classroom in another school in the same district.

He: I feel strongly that responses on a standardized test cannot measure all the learning that takes place in my classroom. A score tells very little about a child other than his answers to a particular test on a specific day. You know, if teachers just "taught to the test," they could improve their pupils' test scores.

Yes, my classroom is structured, and most children like that security. I feel that I motivate my students. I have good rapport with them. Of course, I have some children with special problems, and they need help from specialists, whom I expect my school to supply.

She: Anyone who goes into my classroom should understand what a child-centered learning area is all about before judging my performance. The noise level in my room varies, depending on the type of activity the students are engaged in. I work with a few children at a time, rather than teaching the whole class a prepared lesson. A visitor might hear students reading aloud or giving each other challenges in math.

There's lots of planning and record keeping involved with my method. Much of it is done individually with the children.

He: Don't you agree we can both be successful teachers in different ways? You claim your environment heightens children's responsibility. I use many techniques for teaching attitudes, behaviors, and values—role playing, discussions, and unfinished stories, for example. I expect colleagues who evaluate my teaching to look for nonacademic results—as well as measurable scores in subject areas.

She: Whether evaluation takes place in your room or mine, it should be for the purpose of improving our teaching skills and should not be a threatening procedure. To me, evaluation is synonymous with improvement. Evaluation may point up a teacher's need to attend an in-service course or a course at a local college or in a neighboring school district, to select new teaching materials, or even to observe a colleague's class.

He: Wouldn't these ideas apply to high school as well as elementary teachers? For all teachers, on-the-job learning is forever, and diagnostic evaluation is the way to keep in-service education on target.

She: It is also important to remember that programs need to be evaluated along with teachers. For instance, members of our faculty recently held a session to review our own individualized reading programs that was helpful to all of us and gave us an opportunity to exchange ideas on how to do a better job.

He: Evaluating techniques also can offer insights to smooth out potential problems. For example, I'm bothered by a practical question: How do youngsters function when they move from open to traditional classrooms within the same school?

She: That question suggests the need for a discussion with teachers from both types of classrooms to anticipate and identify problems of adjustment. Then all teachers concerned can share their ideas and strategies for making the transition as easy as possible.

Getting back to teacher evaluation, I believe it should be a cooperative enterprise. For example, older students judge their teachers continually. Surely a rating system devised with student participation can be useful for improving classroom teaching techniques.

He: I'd like to use evaluation by students to sharpen my own awareness and effectiveness in the classroom. It's important for me to know my students' reactions to their materials and to my methods of presentation and to the climate of the class.

She: We've been discussing teachers in the classroom. Isn't evaluation important during preservice professional training? Perhaps the crucial years are those during the probationary or early teaching experience.

He: If the learner, the student teacher, the probationary teacher, and the seasoned teacher were to shape up instruments for evaluation, we'd have a continuous review of education. Right now, teachers in open or traditional classrooms are too willing to let outside agencies or persons develop instruments for judging teachers and children. Let's get the contractual right to do it ourselves and not turn this important element of decision making over to laymen and commercial interests!

She: That's exactly why I prefer colleagues who understand open classrooms to judge my performance.

Being exposed to a variety of teaching methods can be a good experience for children. Different methods are not to be confused with poor preparation or bad teaching, however. But experienced evaluators are able to distinguish between innovative classroom

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This is the third article in a series on program and performance evaluation. The first article, "Teacher Evaluation—Some Implications" by Bernard H. McKenna, appeared in the February 1973 issue of *Today's Education*; the second, "Opinions Differ: Teacher Evaluation" by Larry E. Wicks, in the March issue.

settings and substandard teaching conditions, regardless of the setting.

He: It is the substandard situation that poses the problem. Some schools have crowded classrooms, lack supplies and equipment, and experience community conflicts. And I've only mentioned a few of the conditions that can plague schools. Should I go on?

She: Instead of enumerating the problems, I'd like to dwell on an ideal arrangement. Wouldn't it be a boon to have teacher-parent conferences and combine student evaluation and reporting? Surely administrators could facilitate this arrangement and help as substitutes in the classroom.

He: That sounds worthwhile as long as we remember that no evaluation, whether for students or teachers, is a substitute for a good learning environment.

She: What we are saying is that certain basic rules should be in effect for *all* teaching and learning. First comes a sound learning environment. Beyond that, we rely on many kinds of help—student interaction, teachers observing each other, parents responding to teachers—to name a few.

He: I'd add that evaluators should have certain characteristics so that their judgments will be truly fair no matter what kind of classroom they're evaluating. They should understand that learning can take place in formal as well as informal situations, recognize desirable interactions between teachers and students, know student abilities and be sensitive to the student learning potential, and understand what is meant by terms like *individualized instruction* and *open classroom*. They should also be familiar with a broad range of observational systems and be thoroughly trained for their role as observers.

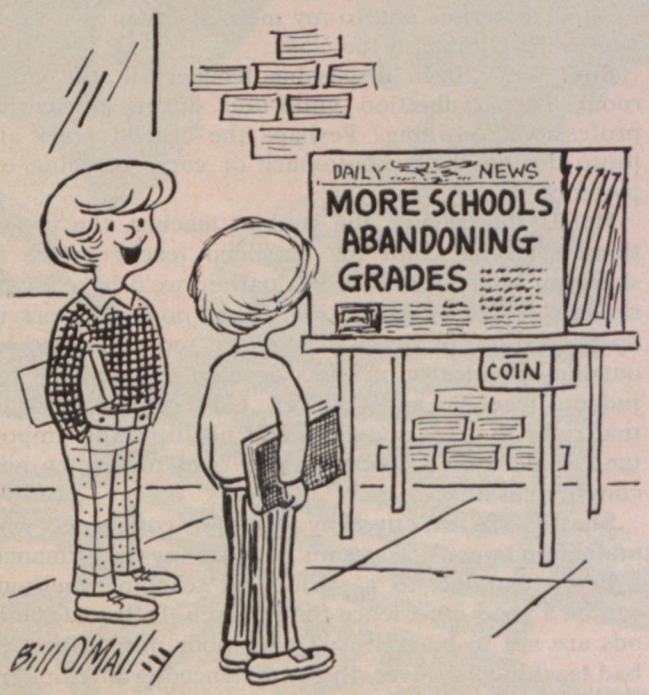
She: Let me sum up some prerequisites that are vital to a fair evaluation. Schools should provide opportunities for self-renewal of faculty. They should emphasize student involvement in learning. Schools should provide the teaching staff with the services of specialists, such as psychologists and social workers. A team approach can ensure a learning success with all children.

This dialogue with two seasoned teachers points up some differences that need to characterize evaluation in varying learning settings, including (a) understanding of differences in general approaches to the learning task, (b) appreciation for different degrees of structure and freedom, (c) recognition of many valid approaches to individualization of instruction, and (d) respect for a variety of teaching styles.

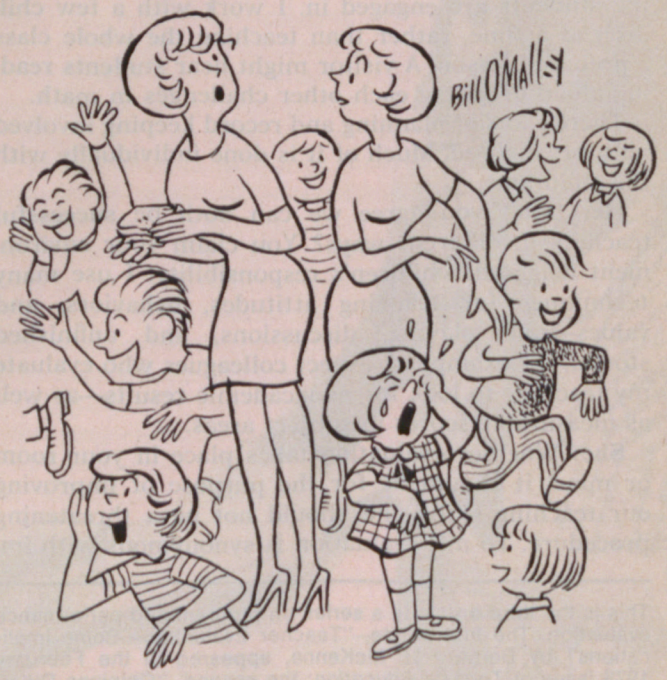
But it also illustrates some important common denominators that need to apply to evaluation no matter what the setting:

- Evaluation and instructional improvement are closely allied and need to be considered together.
- Teachers themselves need to be fully involved in determining and implementing the evaluation process.
- Conditions for teaching and learning strongly influence the results of any kind of evaluation.
- The characteristics and talents of evaluators are a key to fair and valid evaluations in all kinds of situations.

Finally, opportunities for teacher-inspired in-service education may be the most significant concomitant to evaluation. After all, if there is little or no opportunity to obtain those knowledges and skills that the results of evaluation indicate as lacking, why evaluate at all? □



"It's nice to see a cheerful headline for a change."



"Wonder what lunch would taste like sitting down?"

Archaeology for Secondary Students?

PAUL H. EZELL, *professor of anthropology, California State University at San Diego.*

□ **Traditionally a student's first experience with** archaeological field and laboratory work follows one or more introductory courses in anthropology. In my opinion, this may not be the best approach. If students could participate in archaeological programs as early as the junior high school level, the vigorous, challenging activity might salvage some potential dropouts.

For a number of years, California State University, San Diego, has accepted high school and adult volunteers in its archaeological excavation programs. A few case histories of our experiences with young people will illustrate the value of such activity.

One young man, large and strong, had reached the end of his junior year in high school without learning to read or write. Placed in a situation where he could pit his body against physical tasks, he found that he had to exert himself in the other activities of archaeology as well. The members of his age group at the excavation refused to label his collection bags of artifacts. Consequently, the young man began to learn to print and read.

During the past year, he has faithfully attended every discussion meeting of a beginning course in archaeological field methods at the College and now plans to attend a technical school to remedy his educational deficiencies so that he can at least try college and aim for a career of some kind in archaeology.

Another student on the verge of dropping out of high school was in the middle of her senior year. "School is such a drag," she announced. But when she joined the program, she performed so well during the first half of the season that the excavation foreman put her on the payroll for the second half. This tangible evidence that some adult thought her work of value may have played a decisive part in her finishing high school.

Currently, she is enrolled in a community college, taking courses with the aim of transferring to California State University, San Diego, to pursue studies in anthropology. She, too, attends the discussion sessions as an auditor, and both she and the young man in the former example continue to participate in the excavation programs as volunteers.

Last summer, the Vista Unified School District instituted a pilot program in archaeology for secondary students after hearing reports of the success of the San Diego State program with high school students. The board of education authorized the location of a site and received the owner's consent to hold a six-week excavation there.

The following suggestions may prove helpful to other high schools that would like to set up similar programs:

- The thrust of the program must not be on archaeology for its own sake, but on archaeology as a means of introducing the methods of science.
- A qualified archaeologist must be associated with the project. In the Vista School District program, a junior high school general science teacher who had had experience working with a lay archaeology group supervised the administrative end of the summer program and a graduate student with sufficient archaeological experience served as excavation foreman.

In addition, an archaeologist with experience in varying facets of excavation, such as logistics, analysis, and excavation tactics and strategy, should serve as a consultant during at least the first months of the program.

- Other subject areas can and should be drawn into the project: art for illustration, industrial arts for building screens, life sciences for the analysis of plant and animal remains, earth sciences for understanding the geology and nature of the fill, history and geography for the background of the site, and so on.
- A committee or individual should prepare a report on the excavation. The greatest sin an archaeologist can commit is to dig and not share his findings with his fellowman. The archaeologist destroys the raw data in the process of conducting research and this irretrievable data can only survive in the form of the report.

Involving students in archaeological excavations under competent supervision enables them to hold a treasure hunt, unravel a detective story, and engage in meaningful research. All in all, a delightful combination. □

Dr. Ezell spoke at greater length on this topic at the annual meeting of the Southwestern Anthropological Association at California State University, Long Beach.

TEACHER TIE LINE

Do you have questions related to instruction and professional development? Do you have some problems connected with your work with which the NEA may be able to help?

"Teacher Tie Line" is a new column intended to respond directly to questions sent in by Journal *readers that can be answered in the space available. Answers will reflect the opinions of teachers and consultants who have educational background and/or direct experience with the subject of each question. Reader response to questions is also welcomed.*

Please send questions to Teacher Tie Line, Today's Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

In my school district, teachers will now be held responsible for student progress as shown on test scores in reading. Am I off base in thinking a system unfair that can penalize me on the basis of student scores in reading?

You are not off base at all. You and other teachers have many reasons to be concerned about the whole issue of evaluating teachers solely on the basis of student performance.

Several states and school districts either have passed legislation or are in the process of developing laws which would hold teachers directly responsible for the progress of their students as measured by limited instruments.

As professionals, it is difficult to quarrel with the idea of accountability, but we also know that teacher performance is certainly not the only component affecting student progress. Decisions made by local boards of education, state boards, and the community also affect student performance—not to mention the influence of a student's home life on his schooling.

Staff with NEA's Programs for Professional Excellence have recently developed a "Briefing Memo on Accountability" that deals with this issue. You may obtain a copy by writing to Information on Professional Excellence, Room 708, NEA Center.

Do any research studies recommend some teaching techniques over others?

A study conducted by Columbia University's Institute of Administrative Research turned up some provocative answers to this question. Specifically, small-group work, individual work, discussion, laboratory work, and student reports and demonstrations were found to be the most effective educational activities at both elementary and secondary levels. Teaching techniques that scored low included lecturing, question-and-answer sessions, seat work, and movies. Moreover, the study indicated that teachers make heavy use of the low-scoring techniques.

For more information on this subject, write to NEA Publishing, Section WRS, Room 609, NEA Center, and ask for the titles in the "What Research Says to the Teacher Series"—a series of booklets and filmstrips on research in teaching methods and techniques in more than 30 areas.

Do you know of any successful new approaches to the problem of high school students who are indifferent to or turned off by school?

Many of the alternative schools programs that have mushroomed in the past couple of years have been designed particularly for these kinds of students, many of whom were on the verge of dropping out. Characteristics of these efforts include—

- An individualized program that matches, insofar as possible, student needs and interests.
- A rich choice of courses and educational options for service that reach into the community to give students greater opportunity to do their own thing.
- New roles for teachers in which they serve more as advisers, guides, and counselors than as givers of information.
- Parent and community involvement with the school and with students' progress.
- Student participation in planning and evaluating activities.

Examples of schools that have developed programs to deal directly with indifferent students are: (a) the Opportunity Center in Eugene, Oregon; (b) the Alexander Ramsey High School in Roseville, Minnesota; (c) the Downtown Learning Center in Atlanta, Georgia; and (d) Freedom High School in Albuquerque, New Mexico.

For more information about sources describing these programs, write to Information on Professional Excellence, Room 708, NEA Center.

I am frustrated by the fact that my seventh grade students are at least three grade levels behind in their language skills. Can you help?

Almost without exception, the attack on deficient language skills begins with careful diagnosis of each student in terms of his test scores, achievement, health records, family background, and emotional and character traits. Once this information is on hand, then teacher and student, under ideal conditions, can lay out a work plan using materials and activities that match the student's abilities and interest.

Beyond this, a variety of techniques and materials may be used: programmed reading textbooks; intensive, small-group instruction for students with similar problems (perhaps in listening); one-to-one remedial work for those most seriously affected; tutoring by parents or other students to reinforce what is taught; progress reports that start with the student where he is and describe his growth only—never comparing him with the "class average."

For more information on this subject, you may find helpful the booklet, *What Research Says to the Teacher: Reading in the High School* (Stock No. 387-11820, 50¢), and the filmstrip based on it, . . . *When Every High School Teacher Is a Reading Teacher* (Stock No. 387-11612, $12), both available from NEA Customer Service, NEA Center.

Materials developed by the Right To Read Office of the Office of Education might help you. While these materials are geared to entire schools, they may be adapted to classroom situations. If the problem is such that the entire staff would want to take an in-depth look at reading, the following materials could prove invaluable: Needs Assessment Package, General Plan of Action for School-Based Centers, and Program Planning Procedure. Write to Dr. Ruth L. Holloway, Director, Right To Read, Room 2132, U.S. Office of Education, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, DC 20202.

BOOKSHELF

Best Books for Young Adults, 1971-1972

☐ **This list presents books published in** the past year which are recommended as good recreational reading for young adults. It was compiled by a committee of the Young Adult Services Division of the American Library Association in cooperation with a nationwide group of participating school and public librarians. The 31 books were chosen from over 100 titles considered. They were selected because they appeal to young adults, meet acceptable standards of literary merit, and provide a variety of subjects for different reading tastes as well as a broad range of reading levels.

The Whispering Wind: Poetry by Young American Indians. Terry Allen, editor. The wind whispers and the heart soars with the eagle in these moving poems on loneliness, love, and the search for self. 1972. Doubleday. $4.95; paper, $1.95.

Vida: His Own Story. Vida Blue and Bill Libby. Baseball pitcher Vida Blue tells how it feels to rise to instant stardom and then be expected to produce miracles on the field every day. 1972. Prentice Hall. $6.95.

Old Glory and the Real-Time Freaks. Ralph Blum. Quintus Ells, a rich, happy, intelligent freak, is encouraged by his grandfather to write a "map" of his seventeenth summer, describing his close relationship with family and friends for his future grandson. 1972. Delacorte. $5.95.

The Mountain of Truth. Dale Bick Carlson. In a remote Tibetan lamasery, Michael found his mystic destiny, but his brother Peter found only questions that would haunt him the rest of his life. 1972. Atheneum. $5.95.

Executive Order 9066: The Internment of 110,000 Japanese Americans. Maisie Conrat and Richard Conrat. A nation's paranoia is strikingly revealed in this photographic view of World War II concentration camps, American style. 1972. California Historical Society. $12.50; paper, Scrimshaw Press (San Francisco), $4.95.

The Terminal Man. Michael Crichton. Terror spreads as a man wearing bandages, bathrobe, and wires in his brain disappears from his hospital room. 1972. Knopf. $6.95.

Pstalemate. Lester Del Rey. When engineer Harry Bronson discovers he has psi powers, he vows that he will not become insane like some others who have this power. 1971. Putnam. $4.95; paper, Berkeley. $.95.

The Man Who Loved Cat Dancing. Marilyn Durham. This western is a relentless character study, a violent tragedy, but—most of all—a love story. 1972. Harcourt. $6.95.

The Girls of Huntington House. Blossom Elfman. "What can you teach pregnant girls that they do not already know?" asked Blossom Elfman's friends when they learn she has accepted a teaching assignment in a school for unwed mothers. 1972. Houghton. $5.95.

We Can't Breathe. Ronald Fair. For Ernie Johnson, life in Chicago's black ghetto in the thirties meant roaches and rats, wine and grass, street games and violence, and even the "wow" of discovering a book. 1972. Harper. $6.95.

The Hessian. Howard Fast. War is the awful villain and two boys are among the victims in this quiet, powerful novel of the Revolutionary War. New ed., 1972. Morrow. $5.95.

Rage. Philip Friedman. Dying, like his son, from exposure to experimental nerve gas, Dan Logan uses the last reserves of his strength to take revenge. 1972. Atheneum. $6.95.

Gemini. Nikki Giovanni. A dynamic young black writer explores her life and times with the fierce intensity of a poet and lover of life. 1971. Bobbs. $5.95.

Dove. Robin Lee Graham and Derek L. T. Gill. Setting out in his sloop *Dove* to encircle the globe, a 16-year-old boy finds adventure and romance. 1972. Harper. $7.95.

Sticks and Stones. Lynn Hall. Sixteen and a newcomer to tiny Buck Creek, Iowa, Tom Naylor suddenly realizes that the hostility of his fellow students and teachers is due to his friendship with Ward Alexander. 1972. Follett. $4.95.

Soul Catcher. Frank Herbert. Transformed into a mystical spirit named Katsuk, a young American Indian sets out to perform a ritual murder in order to avenge the injustices suffered by his people. 1972. Putnam. $6.95.

The Man Without a Face. Isabelle Holland. Not much affection had come Charles' way until the summer he was 14 when he met McLeod and learned that love has many facets. 1972. Lippincott. $4.95; paper, $1.95.

To Race the Wind: An Autobiography. Harold Krents. Although he was totally blind, Harold and his parents determined that he would not be limited by his blindness. 1972. Putnam. $6.95.

Fog. Mildred Lee. In October, Luke Sawyer's life was going great; in December, everything in his comfortable world started to fall apart. 1972. Seabury. $5.95.

Teacup Full of Roses. Sharon Bell Mathis. Into the lives of a middle-class black family reach the tragedies of drugs, demolished dreams, and sudden death. 1972. Viking. $4.50.

A Report from Group 17. Robert C. O'Brien. A strange zoo in the Russian embassy, an ex-Nazi biologist, and a missing 12-year-old girl—it is Fergus's job to find out how they all fit together. 1972. Atheneum. $5.95.

My Name Is Asher Lev. Chaim Potok. Asher Lev is an ordinary Jewish boy from Brooklyn until his passion and genius for painting create a furor in the art world and alienate him from the parents he loves. 1972. Knopf. $7.95.

Bob Dylan. Anthony Scaduto. What makes Dylan tick—from his early days in Hibbing, Minnesota, to his current silent stance? 1972. Grosset. $7.95; paper, Signet, $1.50.

Passing Go. Ken Schiff. A curious blend of the real and surreal, this is an 18-year-old's account of four bleak months in a mental hospital. 1972. Dodd. $5.95.

Magnifi-cat. Carolyn Sheehan and Edmund Sheehan. When a cat appears at the gates of heaven with an extraordinary halo, the whole computerized admissions process stops. 1972. Doubleday. $5.95.

Report from Engine Co. 82. Dennis E. Smith. On crowded, angry city streets, firemen respond when no one else does—to fire alarms, heart attacks, childbirth, mob violence. 1972. Saturday Review Press. $5.95; paper, Pocket Books, $1.50.

What's a Nice Girl Like You Doing in a Place Like This? Joyce Teitz. The new women talk candidly about their careers and ambitions, their challenges and dreams. 1972. Coward, McCann. $6.95.

The Mountebank. Duncan R. Wallace. Lee, who wants to be a writer, is drawn to Nonno, the prankster, as they enter prep school together. 1972. Houghton. $6.95.

Deathwatch. Robb White. Ben's hunting expedition for bighorn sheep becomes a deathwatch in the desert—with hope of survival 45 miles away! 1972. Doubleday. $4.95.

Foul! The Connie Hawkins Story. David Wolf. Slum beginnings and a college basketball scandal could not keep Connie Hawkins from becoming a superstar with the Phoenix Suns. 1972. Holt. $7.95; paper, Warner Paperback Library, $1.50.

Woodstock Craftsman's Manual. Jean Young, editor. This how-to book for the hands covers everything from beads to batik. 1972. Praeger. $10; paper, $4.95. ☐

"I'll never understand girls if I live to be eleven!"

(*Continued from page* 22)

Education would include much more than traditional in-school learning. All students would take part in planned work-study programs. Many outside people, agencies, and institutions would be used as learning resources and experiences. School, no longer considered just a place for education, would extend far beyond the physical plant. It would then become an idea, not a place. It would be conceived of as a context in which people (students and faculty) live, work, and learn. In one sense, it would be an experience for its own sake — social, psychological, intellectual, physical, and aesthetic. Planning for all this requires some rearranging and some reeducation—for students, teachers, and parents.

By this we do not mean that teachers or laymen must accept a single concept of school, for there should undoubtedly be alternatives. What is important is that teachers, students, and parents who are most directly concerned with a school have a part in shaping what it becomes and that teacher in-service training, in addition to contributing to general enlightenment, is directly related to developing skills for specific undertakings.

Getting to work on school purposes is both an organizational problem and a teacher education task. There needs to be precise thought about various teaching and supportive roles and about how people (teachers and others) learn to create such roles.

Once roles have been described in terms of program and purpose, testing needs to be done to discover levels of complexity. For example, some are direct-encounter roles, such as lecturers, discussion leaders, demonstrators, seminar leaders, coaches, tutors, or performers. Some roles require more training than others. Some roles are more difficult than others. Some should be rewarded more than others. Can we dissect and analyze the elements of these roles? Can such roles be taught? They must be, if teacher education is to make any sense.

There are, of course, other kinds of roles — such as diagnostician, strategist, evaluator, consultant, guide, or programmer—and the same questions can be asked about these. To what extent are the direct-encounter roles separable from this second set? How can they be put into combination? Does any combination of roles logically fit together? Is there some reasonable vertical hierarchy in terms of difficulty, artistry, or prestige?

Roles such as manager of the learning environment, planner of curriculum or student experience, or learning guide add still other dimensions. The organizational hierarchy of team leader, assistant teacher, intern, teacher aide, etc., suggests additional role dimensions. How is an organizational hierarchy role related to teaching roles? Can prestige levels be assigned to organizational, confrontation, and managerial roles? How should salary be assigned to these various roles?

Colleges preparing teachers cannot deal with role differences in isolation from schools. Value differences and difficulty differences need to be tested in performance situations. Testing the difficulty of various roles will require considerable research. Most important, though, is that in-service education cannot proceed very far unless there is more focus on the roles various teachers play and how they can be prepared for them.

So the teacher education school is essential. There have been ideas like this before—and too often they have remained on the drawing board or in the literature. The new interest in teacher education centers makes sense, and it seems to have caught the fancy of enough teachers to get it tried in action. But how can this be approached?

What is done about teacher education centers is more than a matter of political involvement. Getting input and concurrence from teacher organizations is essential to the success of teacher education centers. If they are not by the teacher, of the teacher, and with the teacher, they fail by definition.

Teachers are tired of having innovation imposed, of being led or pushed into in-service training. They are suspicious and resentful as a result of too many experiences with education personnel who devise schemes and content with little teacher input and then expect teachers to embrace a new scheme and apply it in schools. Intrinsic motivation for professional development must be fostered. The time is right to emphasize intrinsic motivation, and this must begin with teachers working on their own problems, indicating their own needs.

The process of involvement should guarantee from the outset, in plans or guidelines, that teachers have a central role in the governance of such centers. Guidelines for teacher education schools (as described in this article, one type of renewal center) should include provisions like the following:

1. The staff should include everyone from teacher aide to senior professor, and governance of the center should be the right and responsibility of those who use it.
2. Teachers should work individually, but also in groups, to study and solve problems.
3. Study and research should be an integral part of the usual school operation.
4. The community (parents and laymen) should be deeply involved.
5. Many community agencies and institutions should work with the school.
6. Adequate money and the readiness to gamble with new and different ideas should be evident.

Having said all this, whatever is done with teachers and students, whatever new roles are developed, our primary goal is to free and nurture the individual in his growth, our top priority is to foster self-fulfillment, our major dream is to help every man gain an awareness of himself. Teachers, though, grounded in fact and based in science, must still lean hardest on that element of being we call artistry. That is the pivotal function of teaching, and I submit that any plan for teaching or learning which does not value artistry above mechanism and system will become humdrum and banal.

—**Roy A. Edelfelt,** *professional associate, NEA Programs for Professional Excellence.*

"Dad, Eddie Miller here says you'd never let me off without a lecture before signing my report card and I say you would . . . ."

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS TO THE NEA BYLAWS AND STANDING RULES

The following amendments to the NEA Bylaws will appear on the ballot on July 6, 1973, the last day of the 1973 Representative Assembly.

Additions are in boldface; deletions are enclosed in brackets.

NEA Bylaw Amendments

AMENDMENT NUMBER 1

TITLE: TO ELIMINATE THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY AND IMMEDIATE PAST PRESIDENT AS EXECUTIVE OFFICERS AND PROVIDE THAT THE SECRETARY-TREASURER SHALL NOW BECOME A SALARIED FULL-TIME OFFICER; TO PROVIDE THAT THE TERMS OF THE EXECUTIVE OFFICERS (PRESIDENT, VICE-PRESIDENT, SECRETARY-TREASURER) SHALL BE TWO YEARS WITH A MAXIMUM LIMIT OF THREE TERMS IN THE OFFICE TO WHICH ELECTED; TO ASSIGN THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS THE RESPONSIBILITY TO ESTABLISH THE SALARIES OF THE EXECUTIVE OFFICERS.

Article III—Executive Officers of the Association

(Delete current Sections 1, 2, and 3 of Article III and insert the following:)

Section 1. Executive Officers. The executive officers of the Association shall be the President, the Vice-President, and the Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 2. Elections, Terms, and Salaries.

(a) In even numbered years, the President and Vice-President shall be nominated at and elected by the Representative Assembly at the Annual Meeting in accordance with the Bylaws and the Standing Rules.

(b) In odd numbered years, the Secretary-Treasurer shall be nominated at and elected by the Representative Assembly at the Annual Meeting in accordance with the Bylaws and Standing Rules.

(c) The terms of the President, of the Vice-President, and of the Secretary-Treasurer shall be two (2) years beginning September 1, following their election. Each executive officer shall remain in office through August 31 of the year in which a successor is elected, unless otherwise provided in this Constitution. An executive officer shall serve no more than three (3) terms in the office to which elected.

(d) The executive officers shall serve full time; their salaries shall be established by the Board of Directors.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 2

TITLE: TO REDUCE THE SIZE OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS TO 30 AND PROVIDE THAT 27 DIRECTORS SHALL BE ELECTED BY THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY FOR A THREE-YEAR TERM (TWO-TERM LIMIT) AND TO ASSIGN TO THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS ADDITIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES, SOME OF WHICH ARE CONCURRENT WITH THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

Article IV—Board of Directors

(Delete current Article IV and substitute the following:)

Composition

Section 1. The Board shall comprise the three (3) executive officers and twenty-seven (27) Directors who shall be officers of the Association.

(a) Directors shall be elected and responsible to the Representative Assembly.

(b) The Directors shall represent elementary and secondary classroom teachers, classroom teachers in higher education, and administrators each in proportion to their membership in the Association.

(c) A state shall have no more than one (1) member in any positional category. Executive officers shall not be included in this stipulation.

(d) Three (3) elementary and secondary classroom teachers shall be elected from each of the five (5) regions established by the Representative Assembly, the remainder to be elected at large.

(e) Members from ethnic minorities shall comprise at least twenty (20) percent of the Board.

Terms and Qualifications

Section 2. (a) Terms of the Directors shall be three (3) years beginning September 1 following the election.

(b) Candidates for the office of Director shall have been active members for at least the three (3) years immediately preceding election.

Elections

Section 3. (a) Members of the Board shall be elected by the delegates at the Representative Assembly as stipulated in Article IV, Section 1, of these Bylaws. Voting shall be by secret ballot and a plurality shall be required for election.

(b) Nominations shall be restricted to active members and shall require a petition of at least two hundred (200) active members representing two or more states in their respective regions. Such petition shall be filed as provided by the Representative Assembly.

(c) One-third (1/3) of the Directors shall be elected each year.

Vacancies

Section 4. The Board shall fill by election any of its vacancies. The newly elected member shall be from the same region and category as the member being replaced and shall serve until the completion of the next Representative Assembly. The Representative Assembly shall elect an appropriate member for the remainder of any unexpired term.

Membership Restriction

Section 5. A Director shall immediately relinquish his position on the Board when he ceases to be employed in the category which he represents.

Terms of Office

Section 6. (a) The term of office shall be three (3) years.

(b) Directors shall serve no more than two (2) consecutive terms.

Functions

Section 7. (a) The Board shall act for the Association and make all corporate policy decisions between meetings; it shall propose the annual Program-Budget and shall be responsible for the fiscal management of the Association.

(b) The Board shall direct that adequate bonds be required of the Executive Director, of the Treasurer, and of such other individuals as it shall determine.

(c) The Board shall implement policies established by the Representative Assembly.

(d) The Board shall determine the time and place of the Annual Meeting and, in the event of an emergency, shall have the power to postpone the Annual Meeting by a two-thirds (2/3) vote.

(e) The Board shall provide for ethnic-minority representation on all committees over which it has direct control.

(f) The Board may charter affiliates to meet such needs of the membership as are in accord with the objectives of the Association.

(g) The Board may establish a committee to review and to recommend recognition or withdrawal of recognition of a Special Interest Group.

(h) The Board shall receive all reports of the Executive Secretary, of the Treasurer, and of committees, and shall transmit with its recommendations such reports as may be appropriate to the Representative Assembly.

(i) The Board shall enter into contracts with state affiliates for dues transmittal.

(j) The Board shall set the salaries of the executive officers, except that the salaries shall not be increased or decreased during the terms of office for which these officers shall have been elected.

(k) The Board may authorize the establishment of relationships between the Association and non-affiliated groups whose policies or practices are not discriminatory. Such relationships shall exist to promote specific mutual objectives. Each such relationship shall be reviewed at least annually to determine continuation.

(l) The Board shall, upon recommendation of the Executive Secretary, approve or reject for cause applications for membership and make assignments to membership classes.

(m) The Board shall, upon recommendation of the Executive Secretary, approve or reject appointments of management personnel at the level of unit administrator or higher.

Fiscal Powers

Section 8. The Board, in discharging its responsibility for the fiscal management of the Association, shall:

(a) Propose the tentative Program-Budget to the Representative Assembly;

(b) Administer the Capital Improvement Fund; and

(c) Appoint annually an independent auditing agency with the recommendation of the President.

Meetings

Section 9. (a) The Board shall meet six (6) times per year and at other times it deems necessary to conduct the business of the Association.

(b) One meeting shall be held at the Annual Meeting.

(c) The President or a majority of the members of the Board shall determine the time and place of meetings.

(d) Due notice of all meetings shall be given.

(e) The Board shall enact rules and procedures to govern the conduct of its meetings.

(f) A request by five (5) or more Directors shall mandate a roll call vote.

Regional Communication Meetings

Section 10. There shall be at least three (3) meetings per year between no less than three (3) members of the Board of Directors and the presidents of the state affiliates in each of the five (5) regions.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 3

TITLE: TO SUBSTITUTE FOR THE CURRENT BYLAWS, THE CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS APPROVED BY THE 1972 REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY IN THE EVENT THAT THE NOVEMBER 1972 MEMBERSHIP VOTE FAILS TO RESULT IN RATIFICATION OF SAID CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS.

Articles I through XIV

(Amend, by deletion of Articles I through XIV, and substitute "Proposed Constitution of the National Education Association of the United States" and "Proposed Bylaws of the National Education Association of the United States." The text of the proposed substitute documents appears in the October special issue of the NEA Reporter.)

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 4

TITLE: TO REDUCE THE ALLOCATION OF STATE DELEGATE CREDENTIALS TO THE NEA REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY BY PROVIDING THAT A STATE AFFILIATE SHALL RECEIVE ONE DELEGATE AND ONE ALTERNATE FOR EACH 1,500 ACTIVE ASSOCIATION MEMBERS IN THE STATE WITH A MINIMUM OF 5 DELEGATE CREDENTIALS GUARANTEED TO EVERY STATE AFFILIATE.

Article VII—Representative Assembly

State Delegates

Section 4. Each affiliated state, commonwealth association, the Overseas Education Association, and the District of Columbia shall be entitled to select from its own membership one state delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each [100 of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active or life members of the Association, up to and including 500 members. An association shall be entitled from its own membership to one delegate and one alternate for each additional 500 such members or major fraction thereof.] **1,500 active Association members within the state. No state shall receive fewer than five (5) delegate credentials.** State associations must transmit to NEA 40 percent of NEA dues by March 1 and 70 percent of NEA dues by June 1 or the delegates of that state shall not be seated in the NEA Delegate Assembly at the annual meeting. Delegates and alternates from states requiring both NEA and state association membership of delegates to the state's representative assembly must be members of both the state association and the NEA.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 5

TITLE: TO PROVIDE FOR STUDENT REPRESENTATION AND VOTING PRIVILEGES AT THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY AND TO PROVIDE AN OPTION FOR SUCH STUDENT DELEGATES TO SIT WITH THEIR STATE DELEGATIONS.

Article VII—Representative Assembly

State Delegates

Section 4. Each affiliated state, commonwealth association, the Overseas Education Association, and the District of Columbia shall be entitled to select from its own membership one state delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each 100 of its members, or major fraction

thereof, who are active or life members of the Association, up to and including 500 members. **In addition, the Student NEA shall be entitled to select from its membership one state delegate and one alternate to the Representative Assembly for each 100 of its members, or major fraction thereof, up to and including 500 members. For the purposes of delegate allocation, the Student NEA shall be considered a single association. The Student NEA shall allocate its delegates among the 50 state student associations and the District of Columbia student association on the basis of Student NEA membership in each state. Student NEA delegates may be seated with their respective state associations.** An association shall be entitled from its own membership to one delegate and one alternate for each additional 500 such members or major fraction thereof. State associations must transmit to NEA 40 percent of NEA dues by March 1 and 70 percent of NEA dues by June 1 or the delegates of that state shall not be seated in the NEA Delegate Assembly at the annual meeting. Delegates and alternates from states requiring both NEA and state association membership of delegates to the state's representative assembly must be members of both the state association and the NEA.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 6

TITLE: TO REQUIRE STATE NEA AFFILIATES TO AFFILIATE LOCAL ASSOCIATIONS THAT MEET QUALIFICATIONS FOR NEA AFFILIATION.

Article IX—Affiliated Associations

State Affiliates

Section 3. The state education association or associations in any state, commonwealth, the Overseas Education Association, and the District of Columbia shall be eligible for affiliation with the Association and shall be designated as state affiliates. Such affiliates shall be entitled to representation at meetings of the Representative Assembly as provided in Article VII, Section 4. The annual dues of a state affiliate shall be $25, except that the dues shall be waived in unified dues states. State affiliates shall receive such publications of the Association and such services as may be approved by the Board of Directors. Beginning with the 1972-73 membership year all state affiliates shall have adopted (a) the policy of unified professional membership, or (b) a plan for the implementation of such a policy. Any state affiliate which has not met one of the above conditions relative to unification by September 1, 1972, shall be expelled as provided in Article V, Section 3 (c). Unified local affiliates and individual NEA members in a state wherein the state affiliate has been expelled shall be entitled, where qualified, to the membership services of the National Education Association. **State affiliates shall be required to affiliate local associations in the state if said local association meets the requirements of eligibility and qualifications for affiliation as provided in Article IX, Section 1, of these Bylaws.**

Local Affiliates

Section 4. Any local professional education association located within a city, county, or other local school administrative unit of any state, commonwealth, the Overseas Education Association, or the District of Columbia shall be eligible for affiliation with the Association and shall be designated as a local affiliate. In addition any association recognized as a local unit by a state affiliate shall be eligible for affiliation. **If a local association meets the requirements of eligibility and qualifications for affiliation as outlined in Article IX, Section 1, of these Bylaws, said association must be affiliated by the appropriate state affiliate.** A local professional education association shall be interpreted to mean any local organization of educators whether its membership is open to all professional educators, or all classroom teachers, or all administrators within the jurisdictional boundaries of the organization, or to all members of a university or college staff. Such affiliates shall be entitled to representation at meetings of the Representative Assembly as provided in Article VII, Section 5. The annual dues of a local affiliate shall be $5 provided, however, that the affiliation fee shall be waived for unified local associations. Local affiliates shall receive such publications of the Association and such services as may be approved by the Board of Directors.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 7

TITLE: TO CREATE A NEW NEA MEMBERSHIP CATEGORY AVAILABLE TO PROFESSIONAL STAFF MEMBERS OF THE ASSOCIATION OR ANY OF ITS AFFILIATES AND TO PROVIDE THAT SUCH MEMBERS BE ENTITLED TO ALL RIGHTS AND BENEFITS OF THE ASSOCIATION EXCEPT THE RIGHT TO VOTE FOR DELEGATES TO THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY, TO SERVE AS A DELEGATE, OR TO HOLD ELECTIVE OR APPOINTIVE OFFICE.

Article I—Membership

(Add new section.)

Classifications

Section 2. The membership of the Association shall consist of [nine] **ten** classifications: Active, Life, Reserve, Associate, Educational Secretary, Auxiliary Personnel, Retired, Student [and], Survivor, **and Staff.**

Staff Members

Section 12. Any person who is employed by the Association or any of its affiliates in a professional staff position may become a staff member. A staff member shall be entitled to special services and all rights and benefits of the Association with the exception of the right to vote for delegates to the Representative Assembly, to serve as a delegate, or to hold elective or appointive office. Annual dues of staff members shall be one-half (½) the dues of active members.

(Renumber subsequent sections.)

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 8

TITLE: TO REQUIRE THAT STATE AND LOCAL AFFILIATES APPLY THE ONE-MAN ONE-VOTE PRINCIPLE FOR REPRESENTATION ON THEIR GOVERNING BODIES WITH ETHNIC-MINORITY REPRESENTATION AT LEAST PROPORTIONATE TO THE ETHNIC-MINORITY MEMBERSHIP IN THE AFFILIATE AND AN ALL-INCLUSIVE AFFILIATE SHALL PROVIDE PROPORTIONATE REPRESENTATION BETWEEN ITS CLASSROOM TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS.

Article IX—Affiliated Associations

Eligibility and Qualifications

Section 1. A professional education association may become affiliated with the Association upon approval of the Executive Committee. An affiliated association shall agree to subscribe to the purposes and objectives of the Association, and to abide by the provisions of these Bylaws and the requirements of eligibility established by the Representative Assembly. **Each affiliate shall apply the one-man one-vote principle for representation on its governing bodies except that the affiliate shall guarantee ethnic-minority representation at least proportionate to its ethnic-minority membership. Where an all-inclusive affiliate exists, it shall provide proportionate representation between its classroom teacher members and its administrator members.** An association shall be qualified for continuous affiliation unless disqualified. Pursuant to procedures recommended by the Board of Directors and established by the Representative Assembly, the Executive Committee shall have power to approve, censure, suspend, expel, or reinstate an affiliated association as provided in Article V, Section 3 (c) of these Bylaws.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 9

TITLE: TO REQUIRE THAT AT LEAST FIFTY (50) PERCENT OF THE MEMBERS OF EACH STANDING COMMITTEE, JOINT COMMITTEE, COMMISSION, AND COUNCIL SHALL BE WOMEN.

Article VIII—Standing Committees, Joint Committees, Commissions, and Councils

Selection of Members

Section 3. The President of the Association shall appoint the members of the standing committees, including the chairmen, except that appointments to the Committee on Professional Ethics shall be approved by the NEA Executive Committee. Unless otherwise provided by the Representative Assembly, members of commissions and council shall be selected by the Executive Committee. The number of classroom teacher members shall be in compliance with the ratio (at least 75 percent) called for by the Representative Assembly. In the event a classroom teacher is appointed to a position and ceases to be a classroom teacher prior to the expiration of his term, he shall resign and be replaced by a classroom teacher. Each standing committee, joint committee, commission, and council shall include at least one member of a minority group **and at least fifty (50) percent women.** Each commission and council shall select its own chairman. Except as otherwise provided by the Executive Committee, the terms of members of committees, commissions, and councils shall begin at the close of the annual session of the Representative Assembly.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 10

TITLE: TO REQUIRE A MINIMUM OF TWENTY (20) PERCENT ETHNIC-MINORITY REPRESENTATION ON EACH NEA COMMITTEE, COMMISSION, AND COUNCIL.

Article VIII—Standing Committees, Joint Committees, Commissions, and Councils

Selection of Members

Section 3. The President of the Association shall appoint the members of the standing committees, including the chairmen, except that appointments to the Committee on Professional Ethics shall be approved by the NEA Executive Committee. Unless otherwise provided by the Representative Assembly, members of commissions and council, shall be selected by the Executive Committee. The number of classroom teacher members shall be in compliance with the ratio (at least 75 percent) called for by the Representative Assembly. In the event a classroom teacher is appointed to a position and ceases to be a classroom teacher prior to the expiration of his term, he shall resign and be replaced by a classroom teacher. Each standing committee, joint committee, commission, and council shall include at least one member of a minority group. **There shall be a minimum of twenty (20) percent ethnic-minority representation on each committee, commission, and council.** Each commission and council shall select its own chairman. Except as otherwise provided by the Executive Committee, the terms of members of committees, commissions, and council shall begin at the close of the annual session of the Representative Assembly.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 11

TITLE: TO REQUIRE THAT THERE BE AT LEAST TWENTY (20) PERCENT ETHNIC-MINORITY REPRESENTATION ON EACH NEA APPOINTIVE BODY AND TO DEFINE "ETHNIC MINORITY" FOR SUCH PURPOSE.

Article VIII—Standing Committees, Joint Committees, Commissions, and Councils

Selection of Members

Section 3. . . . Each standing committee, joint committee, commission, and council shall include at least [one member of a minority group] **twenty (20) percent ethnic-minority representation. Ethnic minority shall mean those persons designated as ethnic minority by statistics published by the United States Bureau of the Census. This designation shall specifically include Black, Mexican American (Chicano), other Spanish-speaking groups, Oriental, and First Americans.** . . .

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 12

TITLE: TO REQUIRE THAT AT LEAST TWENTY (20) PERCENT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE SHALL BE MEMBERS OF ETHNIC MINORITIES.

Article V—Executive Committee

Composition

Section 1. The Executive Committee shall consist of 10 members: President, Vice-President, Immediate Past President, Treasurer, two members elected by and from the Board of Directors, at least one of whom shall be a classroom teacher, for terms of two years, one to be elected each year; and four members elected at large by the Representative Assembly, at least two of whom shall be classroom teachers, two to be elected each year. **Members of ethnic minorities shall comprise at least twenty (20) percent of the Executive Committee.** . . .

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 13

TITLE: TO ENSURE MINORITY REPRESENTATION ON THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS, EACH STATE UNIT ENTITLED TO TWO OR MORE DIRECTORS SHALL, AS VACANCIES OCCUR, GUARANTEE THAT AT LEAST ONE DIRECTOR SHALL BE FROM THE LARGEST MINORITY GROUP CONSTITUTING AT LEAST TWO (2) PERCENT OF ITS MEMBERSHIP, EFFECTIVE SEPTEMBER 1, 1973.

Article IV—Board of Directors

Section 1. The Board of Directors shall consist of one member from each state, commonwealth, the Overseas Education Association, and the District of Columbia; and each such unit shall be entitled to an additional director for each 20,000 or more active and life members of the Association **provided that any such unit entitled to two or more directors shall elect at least one**

director representative of the largest minority group in its membership and provided said minority group constitutes at least two percent of the membership; said requirement to become effective with the first appointment of a director during NEA fiscal year 1973-74 or with the first election of a director following NEA fiscal year 1972-73. If such a unit has an additional director or directors. . . .

Section 2. Each state, commonwealth, the Overseas Education Association, and the District of Columbia shall elect its own director or directors in accordance with **the conditions specified in Section 1 above and** these procedures.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 14

TITLE: REPRESENTATIONS OF MULTI-ETHNIC MINORITIES SHALL COMPRISE AT LEAST TWENTY (20) PERCENT OF THE NEA BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Article IV—Board of Directors

Section 1. The Board of Directors shall consist of one member from each state . . . each 20,000 or more active and life members of the Association. **Members from multi-ethnic minorities shall comprise at least twenty (20) percent of the Board.** If such a unit has an additional director or directors. . . .

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 15

TITLE: TO PROVIDE FOR ETHNIC-MINORITY REPRESENTATION IN THE OFFICE OF NEA PRESIDENT.

Article III—Executive Officers of the Association

Section 3. The President and Vice-President shall be elected for terms of one year. **If after 11 years beginning in 1974 no member of an ethnic-minority group has served as President, nominations for the office of Vice-President at the subsequent Representative Assembly shall be restricted to members of such groups.** The President, upon the expiration of his term, shall serve as Immediate Past President for one year. The Treasurer. . . .

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 16

TITLE: THE TOTAL LOCAL AND STATE DELEGATE REPRESENTATIVES FROM EACH STATE UNIT TO THE NEA REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY SHALL BE AT LEAST EQUAL TO THE PROPORTION OF IDENTIFIED ETHNIC-MINORITY POPULATIONS WITHIN THE STATE.

Article VII—Representative Assembly

(Add following paragraph at end of Section 4, State Delegates, and Section 5, Local Delegates.)

Allocation of ethnic-minority representation shall be at least equal to the proportion of identified ethnic-minority populations within the state. In cooperation with its local affiliates, each state affiliate shall insure that the total state and local unit delegation to the Representative Assembly shall reflect these ethnic-minority populations. If a state or local affiliate fails to comply with this provision, the Representative Assembly may refuse to seat its delegation.

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 17

TITLE: TO PROVIDE THAT EACH AFFILIATED STATE UNIT WILL BE REPRESENTED BY AT LEAST ONE CLASSROOM TEACHER ON THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Article IV—Board of Directors

Section 1. The Board of Directors shall consist of one member **who is a classroom teacher** from each state, commonwealth, the Overseas Education Association, and the District of Columbia; and each such unit shall be entitled to an additional director **who is an active member** for each 20,000 or more active and life members of the Association; **said requirements to become effective with the first election of a director following NEA fiscal year 1972-73.** If such a unit has an additional director. . . .

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 18

TITLE: TO ENABLE THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY TO INCREASE DUES UP TO .003 TIMES THE NATIONAL AVERAGE ANNUAL INSTRUCTIONAL SALARY BY A MAJORITY VOTE AND TO REQUIRE THAT AN INCREASE OVER THAT OR A DECREASE IN DUES SHALL REQUIRE A TWO-THIRDS VOTE OF THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY.

Article I—Membership

Active Members

Section 3. (c) Rights and Dues. An active member shall be entitled to receive the Journal of the Association, to vote for delegates to the Representative Assembly, to serve as a delegate to the Representative Assembly, and to hold elective office. Annual dues of active members shall be

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—Submitted at the request of the Board of Directors by the Bylaws and Rules Committee.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 19

TITLE: BEGINNING WITH THE 1975-76 MEMBERSHIP YEAR, THE ANNUAL DUES OF ACTIVE MEMBERS SHALL BE COLLECTED AS A PER CAPITA ASSESSMENT ON THE ACTIVE MEMBERSHIP OF THE RESPECTIVE STATE AFFILIATES.

Article I—Membership

(Add following sentence at end of Section 3 (c).) **Beginning with the 1975-76 membership year, the annual dues of active members shall be collected as a per capita assessment on the active membership of the respective state affiliates.**

—Submitted by 50 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 20

TITLE: TO PROVIDE THAT THE NEA BOARD OF DIRECTORS SELECT ONE OF THE TWO OPTIONS FOR ELECTION OF AN NEA DIRECTOR IN THE EVENT THE STATE'S GOVERNING DOCUMENT DOES NOT DESIGNATE THE PROCEDURE.

Article IV—Board of Directors

Section 2. (b) Election. Each state, commonwealth, the Overseas Education Association, and the District of Columbia shall elect its own director or directors in accordance with these procedures. Only NEA members shall participate in the nomination and election of NEA directors. Nominations of NEA directors shall be open, and they shall be elected by secret ballot within their respective states. The NEA director shall be elected by the NEA members who are delegates to the state representative body or by all NEA members in the state. **In the event the state's governing document does not designate the manner of selection of an NEA director, NEA Board of Directors shall indicate the option to be followed.** A majority vote of those voting shall be necessary to elect an NEA director. If a second balloting is needed to determine a winner, the two candidates with the highest number of votes in the first election shall be the nominees.

—Submitted at the request of the Board of Directors by the Bylaws and Rules Committee.

Rules Amendments

(Require a majority vote unless otherwise noted.)

AMENDMENT NUMBER 1

Rule 3. Registration

(b) Delegate registration shall begin on the first day of the annual meeting and shall be closed at 5 p.m. on the [fifth] **fourth** day of the annual meeting.

INTENT:

To restore the deadline for delegate registration as it was prior to the 1972 Representative Assembly when the Rule was altered to permit registration on the fifth day in order to accommodate a special situation.

—Submitted by Bylaws and Rules Committee.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 2

Rule 6. Order of Business

(h) A roll call vote shall be taken only after approval, by a standing vote, of [a majority] **one-third** of delegates present. Supervision and counting of roll call votes shall be in charge of the Bylaws and Rules Committee.

INTENT:

To reduce the number of delegates required to take a roll call vote of the Representative Assembly.

—Submitted by 25 delegates.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 3

Rule 8. Committee and Procedure

(The following amendment is deemed improper and out of order by the Bylaws and Rules Committee. It will not be submitted for a vote because it is contrary to Article III, Section 4, providing that the President shall appoint the members of all committees of the Association.)

Standing Committee. The Standing Committee on Resolutions shall be [appointed by the President for rotating terms of five years.] **elected by the members of the Resolutions Committee for rotating terms of five years. During the last working session of the Resolutions Committee at the annual NEA Representative Assembly, the Resolutions Committee members, acting as a commit-**

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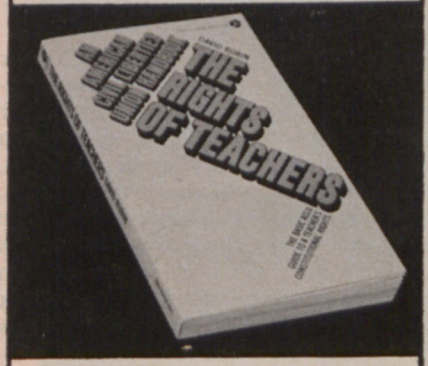

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tee of the whole, shall fill by plurality election from among its then current ranks, all expiring and vacant posts on the Standing Committee for the subsequent year. Standing Committee posts vacated between working sessions shall be filled from the current membership of the Resolutions Committee by the Standing Committee for the interim period before the next regular election by the Resolutions Committee. The President shall annually appoint from [this group] **the Standing Committee** a chairman. This Standing Committee shall select a vice-chairman and a secretary from among its own membership. It shall meet prior to the opening meeting of the Representative Assembly to draft proposed resolutions.

INTENT:

To make the editing committee responsible to the elected Resolutions Committee for its appointment, thereby assuring that those drafting resolutions are responsive to the membership.

—Submitted by the Connecticut delegation.

AMENDMENT NUMBER 4

*Rule 10. Committee and Procedure
Elections
(Add new section d.)

(d) Write-in candidates will be allowed for any elective NEA office voted on by the Representative Assembly.

INTENT:

To allow write-in candidates for any elective office in the NEA.

—Submitted by 25 delegates.

*Requires a ⅔ vote.

Faculty Organization

(*Continued from page* 39)

necessary form for a collective response to such pressures.

All this turmoil takes place against the background of a society in chaos. Liberation movements of oppressed minority groups have thrown America into unprecedented strife. Movements within the education system are primarily motivated by these larger social forces, though sometimes indirectly.

The turmoil precipitates critical situations surrounding educational institutions, and at the same time, the educational crisis feeds social upheaval. The movements for liberation of black Americans and other ethnic minorities and the developing movement among women have a significant effect on education. In higher education, the emergence of ethnic and women's studies programs in curriculum and affirmative action plans in employment and advancement practices are two responses to these social pressures.

As demands and conflicts grow, the process of restructuring educational institutions will continue, and teacher collective bargaining organizations must play a central role in that process. Goaded by these forces, K-12 teachers organized; professors are also organizing and will continue to do so at an increasing rate.

All teachers have much in common. In fact, teachers at all levels have the chance, through collective organization, to transform education from top to bottom, while consolidating hard-won salary and benefit gains. □

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BLACK IS A BEAUTIFUL COLOR

□ **Is it possible for a teacher's attitude** toward the color black to have an influence upon a child's racial attitude? If so, how can the teacher use the color as a tool to help build positive racial attitudes in children?

We decided to find out. A search through the literature substantiated our assumption that young children do tend to evaluate the color white in positive terms and the color black in negative terms.

No one knows exactly why the tendency is present in young children; but if one thinks back to one's childhood, it is easy to formulate a logical hypothesis: Early in childhood memories of many pleasant things are associated with the color white—happy times in the white snow, soft white clouds on a summer day, white angels atop Christmas trees, Santa's white beard, good fairies in favorite fairy tales, fair-haired princesses, and dreams of wedding gowns.

In contrast, black is the scary nighttime; black is the dress of the frightening Halloween witch; black are the thunder clouds that bring loud noises; black are the clothes of mourning; and black is the dress of the wicked stepmothers found in so many fairy tales. Small wonder that children (and teachers) do not refer to black as a "happy" color! How often have you found yourself saying, "Use a happy color like red" or "Yellow is cheerful"?

Our first step in planning a program that might be effective in changing racial attitudes was to administer a test that measured racial biases. We gave this test to 41 white, first grade children. The results of the pretest indicated that the attitudes of this particular group of children were pro-Caucasian/anti-Negro. We then began a six-week, multifactor program for 20 of these children, who constituted the experimental group. The program included the presentation of children's ethnic literature in combination with classroom activities depicting the color black positively.

The program opened on a positive note: an attention-getting, black-and-white-checkered bulletin board. "Hey, what's that for?" "Wow, look at that!" rang out as the children ran forward to investigate the surface with curious fingers. We definitely had their attention.

Each day, during a specific time allotted for the program, the children listened to a biography about a famous black American. We encouraged discussion of the person's experiences. We then read stories about black children. These story hours tended to motivate the children's involvement in role-playing activities and creative writing.

We had a free period every day for each child's own creative notions regarding his feelings about the color black or black people. The children drew pictures, fashioned collages, made murals, constructed puppets, and designed bulletin boards. One such board was covered with pictures of beautiful black things cut from magazines. Another, labeled "Black and White Friends," displayed puppets of various designs.

On Friday afternoons, the children worked on a specific class activity. Twenty table mats in black and white checks hung across one end of the room. Twenty 3/D black flower designs, mounted on white cardboard, adorned a bulletin board. Twenty black silhouettes of the children in the program hung on the wall above the chalkboard. Making the silhouettes was one of the children's favorite projects, and each child took his silhouette home on the last day of the unit as a reminder that "black is a beautiful color."

At the close of the six-week period, we administered a posttest (an equivalent form of the pretest) to each of the 41 children in the experimental and control groups to evaluate any change in racial attitude. The test results indicated a significantly greater reduction in racial prejudice on the part of the children in the experimental group as compared to those in the control group, who had not been involved in any of the "black unit" activities.

The study indicated that a teacher's attitude toward the color black can have a positive influence upon a child's racial attitude. The multifactor program, as described, was an effective tool in helping to build positive racial attitudes in young children. □

—**Anna V. Yancey,** *primary teacher, State College Area School District, and* **Jane M. Singh,** *assistant professor of elementary education, Pennsylvania State University, University Park.*

If Martin Bray had his way, the only foreign particles left in the air would be tennis balls.

The blur of agility you see above these words is Martin Bray. When he's not busy singeing service aces past his opponents, you'll find him at AC Spark Plug Division of General Motors.

Martin is one of a team, there, that is experimenting with catalytic converters. These devices use a catalyst to convert noxious emissions from automobile engines into harmless emissions. For instance, when hydrocarbons produced by the engine pass through the converter, only water vapor and ordinary carbon dioxide come out the exhaust pipe.

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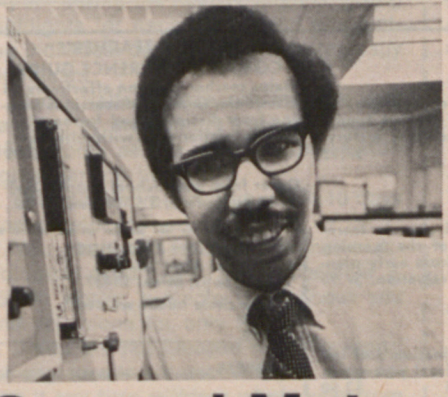

With something as new as catalytic converters for cars, new methods and apparatus for testing had to be developed. Martin helped meet that challenge, and is now putting his ideas to work to help reduce air pollution.

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1973 Convention: June 29-July 6, Portland, OR.

American Education Week—October 21-27, 1973. Theme: Get Involved.

NEA membership, May 31, 1972: 1,166,203.

NEA governance: *NEA Handbook*, pages 91-115.

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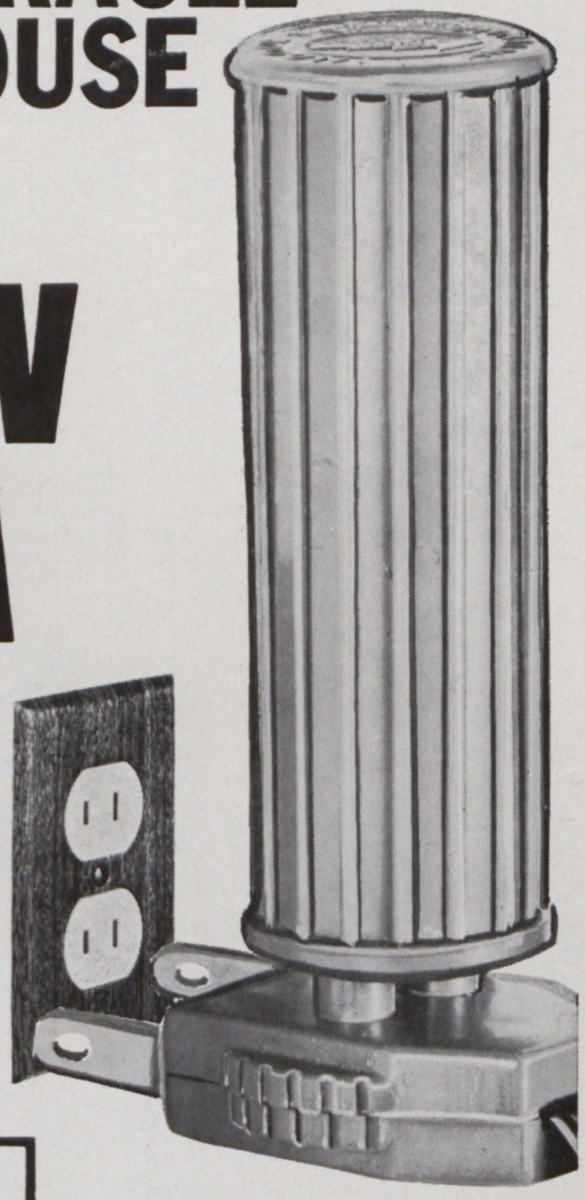

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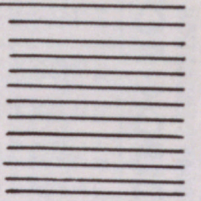

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